THE STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAM

THE Student Personnel Program

ITS DEVELOPMENT AND INTEGRATION

IN THE HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE

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Preface

In this attempt to picture a comprehensive student personnel program, we have drawn on experiences over a period of twenty-six years in the teaching profession. Although we believe some of the ideas presented in this volume to be new and original, we are aware that the work reflects our contacts with colleagues, students, and our own instructors. Among the many to whom we are indebted is Dr. E. G. Williamson, Dean of Students at the University of Minnesota.

We should like particularly to recognize Robert Seth Wilson, Charles J. Glotzbach, Donald H. Ford, and Dr. Paul Torrance, from whose daily practice of the student personnel point of view we have drawn inspiration and illustrations. We gratefully acknowledge the help of Philip R. Rude, who worked on the leadership bibliography, and Mrs. Sylvia Wilson, who assisted in the preparation of the manuscript.

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CHAPTER 1 *The Expanding Role of the Student Personnel Worker*

Knowing one's role in the group and one's relationship to others in the group is essential to the mental hygiene and maximum productivity of the individual. The situation of the student personnel worker appears paradoxical when one considers that while he is expected to help others define and accept their roles, there is confusion concerning his own role in the school of which he is a part and in the world community.

Help for the maladjusted is one limited definition of student personnel work. Vocational guidance is another. In one school, the personnel worker may be chiefly concerned with problems of attendance and keeping records. In another, he may be the disciplinary officer. Providing experience in democratic group practices is frequently overlooked as a student personnel function. Cultivating a sense of responsibility to the community is barely beginning to be recognized as an objective. Positive and preventive measures are less common than services to students already in trouble.

Student personnel services have been added piecemeal to the school system. While rapid strides have been made in the development of the program, it is still regarded by some as an innovation. We are still in the process of defining and proving its function and status.

Before examining techniques and methods, the student personnel worker should explore briefly why he is doing what he is doing. Impetus will be given to his work whenever he can see where his efforts fit into the educational system and the culture. There is some justification to the criticism that the personnel worker is inclined to withdraw to the privacy of the counseling cubicle, where he can limit his attention to the problems of one individual at a time. After a hectic controversy with colleagues over budget questions, enrollment procedures, or any one of many problems of administrative detail, the student personnel worker is likely to feel that his efforts can be more productive in the pursuit of his own specialty.

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Moreover, the car parked in the school driveway, the broken window, the beer in the dormitory, the failing sophomore may seem utterly remote from the questions involved in the Korean war, international trade, famine in India. Yet, as we are prone to repeat, the student must live in the real world and so must the counselor. The student and the counselor are parts of the world community (as well as parts of the school community), each with a microscopic role to play in its complex operation.

There is a relationship between the ability of the individual to produce, to understand and direct his emotions, to communicate with his fellows, to work constructively with others toward group goals, and the conduct of world affairs. It is possible to see student personnel work not only as an instrument which can contribute toward reaching the objectives of the educational system but as an effective implement in our democratic society and in international relations.

The reader cannot have escaped in the past few years the recital of the world's ills, heard with predictable regularity at commencement exercises, Rotary Club banquets, and meetings of distinguished educators. From innumerable possible illustrations, one might select the reports of six biennial conferences of educational leaders, all of which could be summarized thus, "Schools and colleges are faced with staggering problems." Only in the report of the seventh conference could be found any evidence of concrete proposals for attacking them. At the risk of hearing some well-worn clichés, let us take a quick look at the complex world in which we live, in order to try to see the student personnel worker in his context.

Today's Problems

Few of us feel adequate to cope with the colossal world problems of today. We can travel through the air and under the sea, transmute the baser metals into gold, and control the power of the sun for our own destructive purposes, but we cannot feed and clothe the people of the world. Food is wasted in one part of the earth while famine devastates another. The rich soils of some areas lie idle while elsewhere they are heedlessly exploited and exhausted. Natural resources which have been millions of years in the making are used up for the benefit of a fraction of one generation. Disease ravages more than 50 per cent of the populations of some nations, while in the medical laboratories and libraries are the materials and knowledge virtually to wipe it out.

People of all nations profess a desire for peace while preparing for war. Murder, arson, rape are reported among neighboring human beings. Neighboring countries regard each other with hostility, erect trade barriers, and pile up fissionable materials. Fellow workers in the factory, in

the office, or on the same academic staff regard the outstanding production record of a colleague as a threat to their security. We have not learned to live harmoniously together.

Literacy. In the prosperous and enlightened United States, there are millions of children without schools and nearly 3 million adults who cannot read or write. The proportion of our national income which is spent for past wars and defense is many times that which is spent for education. Illustrating our educational deficiencies is the fact that men are being rejected for military service because of educational shortages at the rate of 130 per 1,000 persons examined (158).[1] Our fears and rationalizations divert our efforts from the constructive measures which could contribute to the cure.

Mental Health. Out of twenty-two persons living today in this nation, one will spend part of his life in a mental hospital. Thorman (228:22) estimates that one out of ten persons is emotionally or mentally maladjusted. More than half the patients who visit their family doctors for physical ailments are really suffering from some type of emotional disorder. We need help in adjusting to the demands of our culture, and we need to study how society can be gradually changed to provide conditions more favorable to mental health.

Defining Values. In the midst of the complex problems of our time we find confusion regarding the enduring values of our culture. Respect for the individual, for human dignity, assumed for generations to be a basic concept in our society, does not often appear to be a primary concern in the management of either national affairs or international relations. Expediency, alliances, maneuvering, economic and military advantage consume the attention of our leaders. Contradictory meanings are attached to such cherished watchwords as democracy, Christianity, self-determination, and free speech. Mercy and compassion are all but forgotten values.

Victor Gollancz (80:24) says, ". . . respect of personality, our value of values, is today everywhere threatened. In thought, in speech, in act it suffers hourly dishonour . . . this, and not the atom bomb, is the major threat to our civilization." Attacking this problem is surely a responsibility of student personnel work, directed as it is toward understanding the individual and the development of his personality and powers. The definition and preservation of our values demand consideration by schools, church, press, radio, and all educational agencies, but particularly by the personnel worker.

Productivity. The productivity of the individual is an important factor

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[1] The first number in parentheses refers to numbered items in the bibliography at the end of the book; numbers following the colon are page numbers.

in the solution of our staggering world problems. Only a small fraction of the potential power of the individual has been utilized. If the human animal could be released from inhibiting tensions, negative attitudes, fears, and hostility, it cannot begin to be estimated how much he could increase his productivity. The student personnel worker makes a contribution whenever he helps the individual student to cope with personal problems which hamper his productivity and development.

Directing Emotions. The average adult seems to regard the word "emotion" as an offensive term. He apparently assumes that upon maturity he discards or at least ignores emotions, and he frowns upon anyone so indelicate as to mention the subject. It is something to be discussed briefly in the college psychology class but which has little or nothing to do with making a living, voting on a bond issue, or reading the daily paper. He prefers to believe that his actions are the result of knowledge and reasoning.

Nevertheless, we need only to listen to recorded speeches of Hitler, Mussolini, Churchill, Roosevelt, or our own congressmen to be reminded that emotion plays a large part in decisions which directly affect us. The emotions of our leaders operate in their relationships with other international personalities and influence their decisions. When personal or national prestige appear to be threatened, the defender responds with recriminations and bombast.

Nations of people can be swayed by fear, hate, pride, love, or loyalty. Fear of Russia causes us to rearm. Fear of Russia following the First World War induced international leaders to help rebuild Germany as a buffer state between Russia and the rest of Europe. Fear provokes nations to seize strategic waterways, areas rich in natural resources, and the most likely sites for air bases.

Differences between labor and management, between exponents of conflicting ideologies, between one nation and another and between one neighbor and another are aggravated and complicated by emotion. When the individual makes the creed, the cause, the crusade, his own, any opposing force or idea threatens his personal security. If the individual cannot understand what emotions and motivations operate within human beings and groups of human beings, he cannot use his knowledge of facts effectively to promote our basic values.

Often regarded as a handicap, emotion can work as a compelling, motivating force for productivity and harmony. The need to make emotion and reason work together is a challenge to the educator and to the personnel worker. The student personnel worker is directly concerned with emotion in the individual and emotions as forces at work in any group. He can make a contribution to the solution of world problems if he can help

to discover what produces tensions and hostility in the human personality and what can be done to relieve tensions or dispel hostility.

The School in Its Context

Defining Responsibility. The magnitude of world problems makes the individual effort seem so puny and presumptuous that school teachers are often inclined to withdraw into the relatively remote and protected atmosphere of the school, almost a separate society, where loitering in the halls or shooting paper wads seems the consuming issue. And yet, where, if not in the school, is the hope of a better world in the future? It is the major instrument for transmitting the skills, habits, and *values* which can help future citizens cope with the demands of their environment. The student personnel worker, and all members of the profession, need to examine their programs to see whether or not they are equipping students to assume responsibility in the world community. This point of view is reflected in the writings of Chapman (42:159*ff.*):

If we provide a school program for our pupils as satisfactory as those available to students of Plato, Magnus, Erasmus, and others, ours too will be based upon the *persistent problems* of our people. . . .

While all previous educational concepts have been designed to meet the needs of classes and groups, ours is based upon the democratic ideal that education is a service to be made available to all and that it shall be as comprehensive as the interests and activities of the complicated social order of which we are a part.

To bring personnel work down to the practical needs of the individual, the personnel worker finds that more people lose their jobs because of inability to get along with other people than because of incompetency. The industrial research worker learns that social and emotional satisfactions on the job influence production as much as wages and hours (187).

Through clinical treatment and group work the individual can be freed from emotional blocks and enabled to increase the use of his abilities. The suitable choice of a curriculum and a vocation permits him to apply his talent to the best advantage. Effective participation in group projects helps equip him to live and work with others. These aids to development are functions of the complete student personnel program.

Application of Democratic Concepts. The individual is the unit in the democratic society, and his education is basic to its survival. The successful functioning of a representative government depends on the productivity, power of discrimination, and active participation of the individual.

Student personnel work recognizes the dignity and value of the individual. It makes him count as a member of the group and a member of society. It is evidence that the educator and the patron of the school where

it operates believe that the individual has a contribution to make to society and that it is important to try to help him solve his problems and to help him find his role in the larger scheme.

The significance of such a program in our own nation is discussed by Chisholm (43:17): "Guidance is based on the assumption that the world has a place for everybody, at least that our democratic America has—a place in the social world, a place in the world of education, a place in civic life, and a place in the vocational world." Regarding the personnel practice of permitting the student to make his own decisions, Chisholm (43:19) says: "The concept that the final decision should come from the individual would not be acceptable in the non-democratic countries. . . . In the democratic countries . . . the individual is elevated to a place of worth beyond that of a part of the political State."

The student must formulate his own plan for self-realization. He must begin in youth to make decisions if he is to play an adult role in society— make his own decisions—after he leaves the relatively formal organization of the school. Student personnel work is a democratic element among mass-production methods of modern education. It is a segment of the school with the same goal as the total educational program, "equal educational opportunity for all persons to the maximum of their individual abilities."

Developing Ability to Think. We have mentioned some of the universal dilemmas which make us aware that the future citizen must learn to think. Ability to think might be regarded as an obvious accompaniment to education, but how many people leave high school or college prepared to work independently, to study a problem exhaustively, to dig out information on both sides of a question, to weigh evidence, see relationships between facts, and identify emotional factors? With a benevolent elder always at hand to point out chapter and verse, how can youth develop the necessary skills for critical thinking?

Modern methods of communication keep us acquainted with world problems. In the United States every man can have a voice in the treatment of them. He finds he must form opinions on them in order to judge whether or not his elected representatives have acted wisely or honestly on such matters. Responsible citizenship requires that he consider whether or not the United States should lend support to a specific government, help to arm this or that nation, withdraw troops from a given area and—whether a given nation is fascistic or genuinely democratic. Understanding one's own local government, the complex problems of labor relations, racial discrimination, or even the application of democratic principles to a club, church, or school project requires more elaborate preparation than classroom recitations of facts.

The ability to think, analyze, and organize thoughts was most often checked by 72 noted alumni of the University of Iowa as the most important contribution of the college to their success. Mastery of subject matter was ranked at the bottom of the list of 14 contributions. Dr. Daniel Starch (217), president of a New York firm for business research, commented on the replies of the distinguished alumni, "Much information in textbooks and courses is actually trivial or appears trivial because teachers do not relate it to more important values."

Seventy-five per cent of a group of curriculum experts agreed that the school should emphasize "how to think." Only 5 per cent stated that emphasis should be placed on what to think (164:141). Elmo Roper (192) reports only 13.4 per cent of the people queried in his nation-wide study ranked academic background as the most important thing young people should get out of high school. Only a relatively small percentage of the subject matter covered in the classroom is retained. The enduring benefits of education are attitudes, character, methods of thinking, habits of attacking problems. More attention must be given to reaching these objectives.

Although the necessity for subject matter is obvious, the effective teacher makes it real and meaningful and useful to the student only through his understanding of the dynamics of human behavior and the learning process, in other words, through the personnel or student-centered point of view (a long-time factor in good teaching). Our increasing knowledge of the dynamisms of human behavior is infrequently applied, according to Cantor (38:10), who says, "The pity of it is that we do have at hand a body of solid data and practical insights which could revolutionize our whole American system of public education within one generation if only a sufficient number of teachers were given the opportunity to acquire the skill to use these insights." In a well-developed student personnel program, there is close communication between the classroom teacher and the student personnel worker. When the work is effective, the student personnel point of view pervades the total school program.

It would not be just to ignore the educators of the past who have been alert to the potentialities and needs of the school. Educational leaders and, to a large extent, the general public have become increasingly aware that the development of attitudes, self-directiveness, and the power of reasoning are urgent responsibilities of the school.

Problems of Integration. The concept of the personnel program was one outgrowth of this awareness, and yet in many cases the service has failed to become an integrated part of the school system. One view of the personnel program, according to Robert M. Strozier (222), is that certain services must be rendered to students, but that these must be separated

from the regular academic offerings of the institution. As a result, he says, the personnel administrator is major-domo of the side-show area. Others of a higher order carry on inside the "big top."

This situation is not necessarily the fault of the school administrators or faculties. In many instances, the student personnel worker has chosen to remain aloof from the rest of the staff, giving the impression, whether intentional or not, that he is in a different professional sphere or that he is a missionary with a message for the uninitiated.

There is no conflict between the student personnel program and the general program. The goals are the same. School administrators and teachers themselves initially recognized the need for student personnel services and provided leadership to develop them. In some ways, personnel work is an extension of administration and teaching. The problem is to decide how the student personnel program can best fit into the school system and contribute to our educational objectives.

We may be sure that student personnel work will not provide a magic formula by which all of our formidable educational and cultural ills can be cured, but its potentialities have not yet been thoroughly exploited. The student personnel worker has a responsibility to help define his own role in the educational program and in society and to share in attacking the problems which confront the educator. The integration of the services into the school system, unification of all personnel services and related activities, communication between student personnel staff and teachers and administration, and the extension of the personnel concept to teaching and administration are needed to make the work fully effective.

Outcomes of Personnel Work

Student personnel work as it is defined today has developed over a period of about thirty-five years. A review of some of its outcomes will help us to judge how its methods can be used in solving some of our educational problems. Reports of school programs and their results indicate that the general outcomes are increased retention, improved distribution of students to curricula, improved morale, early identification of trouble makers and prevention of discipline problems, improved placement of graduates, improved academic achievement, development of student leadership and responsible citizenship, a better understanding of students by the faculty, and increased good will between the students and the staff. (While some evaluation studies have been imperfectly designed, the trend of their results indicates the substantial contributions of student personnel work. Continuous evaluation is needed to show us where our efforts have succeeded and where improvement can be made.)

Increased Retention. Koos (112:114*ff.*) reports that retention of stu-

dents and the improved distribution of students to the various curricula were in proportion to the number of personnel services offered in 50 institutions studied. Services studied included clinical counseling, placement, testing, courses in vocations, faculty advisement, and the orientation course.

One of the reasons given by students who dropped out of college was insufficient counseling upon entrance, according to an article by Snyder (215:28). A study of retention at Stephens College showed an increase of 13 per cent retained among those counseled (numbering 232) over a control group of the same size, selected at random.[2]

Persistence in college over a period of four years was noted to be greater among a counseled group of 188 students than among a noncounseled group of the same size in a large liberal arts college. A larger percentage of counseled students, 53.7 per cent, graduated, as compared to 36.2 per cent of the noncounseled students, a significant difference of 17.5 per cent. A critical ratio of 3.47 was obtained between the percentages of the graduates in each group. Nongraduates in the counseled group stayed in college longer than uncounseled nongraduates.[3]

The survival rate among pupils in Lansing, Michigan, schools is reported to have increased from 60 per cent in 1940 to 85 per cent in 1949 after the development of a group guidance and testing program, a system of progressive promotion, a revitalized continuation school, a visiting-teacher program, a centralized placement service, and limited counseling service in the schools. In 1941–1942, in one Lansing school, 34 per cent of the children hated school and wanted to quit. In 1946–1947 and 1947–1948, the percentage who stated they disliked school varied from 6 to 8 per cent, an improvement of 400 per cent in five years (149).

Rothney and Roens (194) found that a significantly larger number of "guided" students entered institutions of higher learning.

Morale. Early identification of personal problems of students puts administrators, teachers, personnel workers, and student leaders in a position to prevent discipline problems. An unpublished study of discipline problems at a Middle Western college shows that it is possible to identify students with problems early in the school year (275). Examination of the case folders of the 25 major offenders disclosed that 17 out of 25 could have been identified by a study of their case folders, which included personality test results. Early identification of these cases would have permitted authorities to prepare in advance for emergencies. Early treat-

[2] Woolf, Maurice D., "Unpublished Study of Effects of Counseling on Retention of Junior College Students," Stephens College, Columbia, Mo., 1941.
[3] Toven, J. Richard, "Appraising a Counseling Program at the College Level," *Occupations*, 23, 459*ff.*, 1945. (Reprinted in 34:501*ff.*)

ment of personal problems could have reduced the number of violations.

After a five-year program of testing, counseling, and wide participation in activities in a small Missouri high school, administrators noted no major discipline problems during the sixth year (272). This experience was a contrast to the first year, during which destruction of school property, sex offenses, thefts, and cheating were among the violations. Matthew Gaffney (67:26) of New Trier High School reports that a faculty advising program resulted in "dwindling numbers of serious disciplinary problems and better balanced, more human teachers."

Increased Good Will. Through clinical information and personal contacts with students, the faculty grow in understanding of student problems and reactions. Advisers at Stephens College indicated a more thorough knowledge of their advisees than did instructors of the same students, according to a study of the behavior of junior college students. While advisers' ratings of students were detailed and agreed with those of two other raters, instructors frequently checked the column entitled, "No opportunity to observe." Instructors' ratings differentiated less between groups of well-adjusted and maladjusted students than did ratings of advisers, hall counselors, and suitemates (276).

Personnel work and advising make the students feel that the faculty and administration are really interested in them. An opinion poll of the 1947 Kansas State College freshman class showed that 75 per cent of the students who had seen their advisers felt they had been helped. Eighty per cent felt their advisers were interested in helping them. A study in 1950 revealed that 91 per cent of the freshmen who had met with their advisers felt they had received help. All members of both classes stated that advising is a good thing and should be continued (239).

Personal Adjustment. Muench (146) administered three personality tests before and after counseling of twelve cases of personality adjustment. Test results showed signs of improved personality organization and adjustment and agreed well with clinical judgment of the success of treatment. Improvement in personal adjustment following counseling was reported by 85 per cent of the students and 87 per cent of their instructors according to a study by Baruch (18:69ff.).

Student opinion on the benefits of counseling was invited at Stephens College at the close of each of the school years 1939, 1940, and 1941. Benefits were reported by 140 out of 144 students queried in 1939. Progress was confirmed by at least one other person in 137 cases and by three or more faculty members in 72 cases. Twelve items were used on the questionnaire, and the average number of favorable responses was four per person. Seventy-six per cent replied that they had been helped to understand their own problems and possibilities, 59 per cent that they had been helped to

find vocational interests, 47 per cent that they had found support for their own opinions (273).

The study was repeated in the spring of 1940 and in 1941 and the percentage of favorable responses increased each year. In answer to the 1941 questionnaire, 85 per cent replied that they had been helped to understand their own problems and possibilities. Seventy-two per cent indicated that they had been helped to find vocational interests, 38 per cent to improve their study habits, 37 per cent to choose subjects they liked, 41 per cent to be happier, 33 per cent to make friends, and 33 per cent to feel at ease in social situations (270).

A similar study was carried on at Kansas State College at the end of a five-year program of personnel services. Questionnaires were sent to 334 students who were no longer in college and 120 were sent to students still in the college, all of whom had had at least three counseling interviews. The returns amounted to 36.48 per cent from out-of-school counselees and 57.50 per cent from in-school students contacted. Asked whether they would recommend counseling to others, 92.74 per cent said "Yes." Eighty-eight per cent would "seek counseling again if they had it to do over again"; 88 per cent believed that the counselor was genuinely interested in helping the student; 86 per cent felt the counselor could be trusted with any confidence. Almost 81 per cent found that the counselor was easy to talk to. Almost 56 per cent indicated they had been helped to make educational adjustments; almost 47 per cent that they had been helped to make vocational adjustments. More than 23 per cent said they had been helped to make emotional adjustments. While 26.41 per cent stated that they had sought help with emotional and social problems, 35.36 per cent stated they had been helped with social or emotional adjustment. Those who believed counseling had helped them to be happier and more successful than they would have been without it totaled 62.86 per cent. Analysis of the questionnaires of 28 counselees who gave unfavorable responses showed that their answers were not consistently critical. One student who was unwilling to admit that he made any change in his behavior as a result of his experience stated that he would seek counseling again and would recommend the service to others; he felt the counselor was helpful and congenial and would like to have the same counselor again. One student who was not helped personally because his problem of vocational choice was discovered late in his senior year, said of the program: "It is a much needed service—the sooner the better. I deeply believe that vocational interest tests should be a requirement for high school students. I believe the interest test gave a truthful picture of my inherent interests" (213).

Administrative Advantages. The number of changes from one curricu-

lum to another is reduced when entering students, on the basis of personnel records, are placed in the most suitable areas. Rothney and Roens (194) found that changes from one curriculum to another were more frequent among "unguided students than among guided students." The student who makes an early choice of a suitable curriculum may be saved unprofitable digressions and the experience of failure; his time is not wasted on an elective subject which is not interesting to him or which he cannot learn; he may be able to take some classes which apply to his vocational or educational objective or which he is able to relate to his own needs and experiences. The teacher is saved the struggle with an uninterested or deficient student, the time spent with changes from one curriculum to another, and disciplinary problems arising from the student's dissatisfaction with an unsuitable subject. The good feeling engendered by recognizing the needs of the individual helps to prevent discipline problems.

The student personnel worker can supply the administrator with facts about the nature of the student population, proportion of high school students who attend college, level of achievement, opportunities for employment in the community and elsewhere, how graduates are usually employed, relative standing of students in various curricula, characteristics of failing students and school leavers. The curriculum can be revised in terms of student needs.

Increased Productivity. The outcomes of personnel work in industry are evidence in favor of the program. Emphasis on the worth of the individual was accompanied by gains in output and harmony among workers in the Western Electric Hawthorne plant, according to Roethlisberger and Dickson (187). Homans (95:451*ff.*) implies that changing physical conditions had less effect on the output of the worker than mental attitude. Similar conclusions were reached by F. C. Smith (212:258*ff.*). Schurz (202) cites evidence that personnel methods reduce costs, help select able supervisers, increase production, and improve employee relations in the newspaper business.

Improved Achievement. Rothney and Roens (194) found that the rate of subject failures decreased more rapidly among students receiving guidance than among students with similar abilities who were not given guidance. Unguided pupils had a higher rate of grade failure than the guided group in the first year of senior high school. The mean scholastic rating of the guided group was higher than that of the unguided group by a statistically reliable margin. More students in the guided group graduated with honors.

Scholastic achievement of the 1938–1939 class of freshmen in the college of education of Ohio State University was superior to that of the 1937–

1938 class, after the introduction of a five-hour orientation class plus faculty advising. While the scores on the Ohio State University Psychological Examination were virtually the same for both classes, there was an increase in the number of class hours for which grades of A, B, and C were earned among the 1938–1939 class (120:127ff.).

Counseled groups of college students in a large liberal arts college made superior grades and received fewer warnings and probations for scholastic reasons than uncounseled groups of students. Benefits were most pronounced during the first year of college. Counseled students completed more point credits than noncounseled students. A critical ratio of the difference, 11.6 in favor of the counseled groups, is statistically significant.[4]

Williamson and Bordin (259:434ff.) studied counseled and noncounseled students who had been matched according to scholastic aptitude, degree of cooperation, and degree of initial adjustment. The experiment indicates that counseled students were more likely to be better adjusted and to make better grades.

Realistic Personal Goals. Boys and girls who had received guidance during their high school years were judged by Rothney and Roens (194) to have a far clearer idea of their vocational goals, the jobs available to beginners in a field, the kind of work a job involved, and how to get a job than a matched group of students who had not received guidance. Students in the guided group appeared to have more confidence and knowledge of their own abilities.

Learning Group Skills. Personnel work in connection with the extraclass program helps to make it effective in the lives of the students. A coordinated program can make participation possible for a large percentage of the student body, eliminate nonproductive activities, encourage evaluation of existing activities, and produce balance in the program.

The individual rapidly develops self-confidence and shifts toward extroversion when he works successfully with a group toward approved group goals, according to a study quoted by Gardner Murphy (151:612). When conduct and belief in the group project are integrated, the individual cares more and more about the goal of the group and less about personal aggrandizement. He becomes preoccupied with social reality, with the outer world instead of with himself.

Commenting on the influence of social experiences on the development of the self concept, Murphy (151:516) says:

Social acceptability is . . . the chief factor that determines the degree of awareness of self, and social evaluation (such as the status concept) is the factor that determines whether self will be a peripheral or salient experience. If the self ap-

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[4] *Ibid.*

proximately fulfills one's expectations, it may remain a peripheral experience; if it falls shockingly short of doing so, it may become a prominent part of the landscape.

In the case of social failure or rebuff, attention becomes unduly focused on the injured self. The less the security in the social structure, the less the inner security of the individual, the greater will be the tendency, Murphy believes, toward introversion when outer contacts prove unsuccessful (151:613). Assuming that extroversion is desirable in terms of identification with the group and satisfactions accruing from constructive group activity, it may be concluded that opportunities for successful interpersonal and group experiences are rightfully a part of the student personnel program.

Objectives

The foregoing paragraphs give some of the outcomes of personnel programs in schools and industry. The objectives of the work have expanded and changed with the realization of its potentialities. In addition to giving vocational information to the student and helping him solve personal problems, the enlarged aims include helping him through group experiences to learn to live harmoniously with others.

The student personnel program should aim at helping the student

1. To become oriented to the school or college environment
2. To achieve academically according to his aptitudes
3. To find a curriculum and an extra-class activity which will make use of his aptitudes and interests
4. To feel that he belongs to the school and to some groups within the school
5. To understand himself, to be relieved of disabling tensions, and to use his emotions productively
6. To make progress toward vocational goals
7. To develop a feeling of responsibility for the good of the group and the community
8. To learn to work harmoniously with others toward group goals

These are not exclusively goals of the student personnel program but among the goals of the total school program. Student personnel work can contribute toward them through its various services. Chapman (42:163) says that student personnel work "contributes, in some way, to the realization of all major educational objectives."

Scope of the Student Personnel Program

As the foregoing materials suggest, the part of the school's responsibility which is usually given the student personnel worker relates more nearly

to the personal life of the student than to academic life, although helping him to choose a curriculum, helping him to achieve to the extent of his abilities, and other services are closely connected with the academic program. A full-scale personnel program aimed at fulfilling the needs of the students would include

1. A freshman orientation program: testing; information about academic and extra-class offerings, customs, traditions, physical plant, etc.; social contacts and entertainment; preenrollment advising; study helps; campus tours; admissions; registration

2. Continued advisement from faculty regarding curricula, activities, vocations, achievement, realistic individual goals, personal problems

3. Counseling and psychotherapy for emotionally handicapped, underachievers, students wishing to make a vocational choice, and others who need the attention of a specialist or more time than could be given by a classroom teacher

4. Individual testing to supplement entrance examinations

5. Opportunities for participation in student government and student activities to provide experience in exercising democratic functions and to help the student feel that he belongs to a group

6. Leadership training

7. All-school social and recreational program

8. Group therapy

9. Remedial reading, speech and English, and how-to-study clinic

10. Occupational information (through a class in vocations, occupational library, exploratory courses, visits to industries, work experiences, talks by experts, and advisement)

11. Aid to blind, disabled, and foreign students

12. Student employment, loans, scholarships, and placement after graduation

Responsibility for discipline and morale is also included in the work of the personnel officer. Research is an important part of the program, because it helps the staff to understand how their services can be improved, what practices are effective, and the nature of the student population. Maintaining student records is necessary to various parts of the program. Registration and admissions are a part of the orientation process. Student health services, routine physical examinations and medical care are logically classified as personnel services. Colleges and preparatory schools include dormitory counseling and dormitory government among personnel services.

Thus outlined the program may seem too ambitious an undertaking for the staff of a small school or even the state college, where funds must be stretched to the limit. However, some elements of the program already exist in all schools and could be improved by coordination. Warters

(252:27*ff.*) states that the most practical student personnel program includes some services performed by teachers and some provided by the guidance specialist. She suggests that small schools which are unable to employ a full-time specialist be given assistance through the county or state departments of education. The organization of personnel services in the small school will be discussed in a later chapter.

Excerpts from Froelich (76:10*ff.*) summarize his opinions on the scope of the student personnel program:

The concept of guidance services has been broadened and improved over the years. Although definitions of 25 years ago were acceptable when they were written, they now cover only a segment of the guidance program. The numerous definitions of vocational guidance are examples of the limited scope of earlier guidance definitions. The task of the guidance program . . . is to facilitate the adjustment of the school to the pupil and the adjustment of the pupil to the school and to life. . . .

A description of the guidance program is more than a definition of the counselor's duties. True, he is the chief guidance worker, but teachers, principals, and other staff members have guidance duties. The students themselves have guidance duties in a democratically administered school. All school members benefit from the guidance program, and in many ways they contribute to it.

The author speaks of the many guidance services available in schools and the necessity for organizing to make them available for all youth at a time when they are needed. He speaks of fragmentary services, those dealing only with vocational problems, others that are mop-up programs for disciplinary cases or emotional wrecks. He advises organization and coordination of all essential guidance services.

He describes processes for articulation between schools; flow of information between schools; acquainting the student with his new school, educational opportunities, occupations, and etiquette; group processes for help with study habits; counseling; placement; home visits; referral by teachers of students most in need of counseling; adjusting the curriculum to the needs of the students; exploring the needs of the students; research, in which he includes follow-up and evaluation. He classifies the activities into services to the students in groups, services to individuals, services to the instructional staff, and services to the administration.

Summary

Student personnel work can contribute toward educational goals by helping to solve individual adjustment problems, school administrative problems, and problems relating to group harmony and effectiveness. The work can be implemented by defining and clarifying the role of the student personnel worker in the school and society.

The concept of the program has been enlarged to include positive and preventive activities with groups of well-adjusted students and work with teachers and all school staff members as well as with the problems of the individual student. The student personnel worker has responsibilities which extend beyond the school to the world community, to helping define and foster our fundamental human values.

CHAPTER 2 *Counseling*

Counseling students is one of the basic functions of the student personnel program. Counseling and interviewing skills are needed by administrators, teachers, faculty advisers, and club sponsors as well as by clinical counselors. Although counseling of deep emotional problems and certain other problems is best handled by professional counselors, still teachers find themselves daily in situations where counseling is necessary. Acquaintance with the principles behind counseling and accepted skills and techniques is useful to them.

Relationship of Counselor to Faculty and Staff. The relationship of the counselor to the rest of the school staff depends somewhat on the number of student personnel workers employed and, of course, on the scope of the program and the stage of its development. If only one student personnel worker can be employed, his role will probably be that of a leader in faculty discussions of personnel problems. He will help to acquaint the staff with counseling methods and the student personnel point of view, make available literature on the subjects, demonstrate counseling methods, assist in interpreting test results and identifying students who need special help, and probably counsel the most critical cases.

If more student personnel workers are hired, they will doubtless do more of the counseling themselves, relieving the faculty of the more serious and time-consuming cases, and assist with training faculty advisers and acquainting the staff with available services. Referrals from the faculty and administration and administrative arrangements to make the program work depend on friendly relations between the counselor and the rest of the school staff and on their thorough acceptance and knowledge of the program.

Choosing a Method of Counseling. Actually choosing a method by which to counsel is a long process during which the candidate studies the theories behind counseling and tries out, in supervised practice, various methods and techniques. A variety of opinions can be found on the best methods

of counseling. Two of the best known methods have been labeled directive and nondirective counseling.

Directive counseling, sometimes known as reassurance or supportive counseling, permits the counselor to give the client information about himself, his opportunities, and the general situation. He may take the lead in the conversation, point out inconsistencies, or suggest action.

Nondirective counseling, sometimes called emergent or client-centered, puts the responsibility on the client for exploring his problem, potentials, environment, and alternatives. The nondirective counselor does not usually give information. Many do not use any test data or records except their own interview records, feeling that test results, school marks, or opinions of parents or high school principals might prejudice the counselor and that he will find out the relevant data from interview.

Regardless of the approach, the effectiveness of counseling depends on the relationship existing between the student and his counselor. The student is best able to find a solution for his problem if he feels that the counselor accepts him, listens to him with an open mind, and respects his right to make his own decisions.

An experiment to test the effectiveness of three interviewing techniques was carried out by Torrance (238) in a class of senior college and graduate students. Each of three groups of three freshmen was interviewed three times, each interviewer using a different technique. The techniques were labeled authoritarian, nonauthoritarian, and nondirective. Interpretations of test results were given. Each freshman was then interviewed by a fourth class member on each of three teams to see how he reacted to the three techniques. While the nonauthoritarian technique was shown a slight preference, the significant differences were found between reactions toward certain counselors. There was a definite tendency to prefer counselors who had achieved the highest ratings on the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory,[1] a predictor of teacher-pupil relations.

Probably few people counsel according to the same pattern. Each counselor chooses from his instructor and other authorities the techniques which he can use most effectively and develops his own pattern. Some counselors are apparently able to combine successfully elements of nondirective with directive counseling.

Directive Counseling

In directive interviewing it is not unusual for the interviewer to guide the discussion, trying as hard as he can to stay on a subject that does not get client resistance and one that is related to the client's needs. Directive

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[1] Cook, Walter W., Carroll H. Leeds, and Robert Callis, *Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory*, Psychological Corporation, New York, 1951.

counseling usually follows testing of the student, and the counselor uses test data, school records, and reports in the interview.

The case work proceeds in the following sequence:

1. The situation is defined: the client tells why he came for counseling—he is dissatisfied with his classes, or he cannot pay attention in class, he wants to choose a college, he wants to leave school, he was referred by a teacher or his principal; the counselor offers to help and spells out his relationship to client.

2. The problem is clarified: the student gives more information about himself; the counselor may give information about the student and the situation (this may take more than one interview); the student is asked to state his goals if possible.

3. Possible methods of attacking the problem are described and explored, and the client elects the method of working on his own problem if he can, often following the counselor's suggestions.

4. The client takes further tests if needed.

5. The client returns for an interview and tries to redefine his goals; if he is able to define his goals, the counselor feeds into the interview more test data and other relevant information. Test data should be brought in late in the interview or series of interviews, according to the opinion of Darley (50:28*ff*.), depending on how fast the client is able to define his problems and goals. This strategy gives the client an opportunity to work independently on his problem in the early part of the counseling and express himself with relative freedom, thus reducing the possibility of resistance. The counselor may be able to introduce the data when it will confirm a suggestion of the client or when it will be most meaningful. Introduced too early, the test data may confine the client's remarks to subjects suggested by the data or eliminate the discussion of conflicts which may be troubling him. The client is more likely to work actively on his problem while he is motivated by the desire to know his test results than after he has learned them.

6. The client makes a decision if he can and takes action.

The directive counselor could be expected to make comments such as "This evidence makes us think you would have to work very hard in medical college," or in another case, "These high scores in math and science suggest that engineering might be a good curriculum for you." When a client is hedging about facing a problem he might say, "Do you really want to work on this?"

The counselor respects the integrity of the individual and his right to make a final decision. He does not exhort, scold, or threaten. It may be that no final decision is reached. The counselor will then redefine the situation and make arrangements for another meeting if the student is interested. He may suggest talking to other people or securing informative books or bulletins. In vocational guidance of secondary school pupils a counselor may have to wait for pupils to acquire more maturity or experience before following up a case.

E. G. Williamson and J. G. Darley (261:168*ff*.) outline the steps for the

counselor: (1) clinical analysis and synthesis of all data available on the student; (2) diagnosis of the problem; (3) prognosis; (4) counseling or treatment; (5) follow-up. Structuring interview notes according to this outline makes them readable and convenient for research and ensures that important items are not overlooked. If the counselor does not have time to structure notes, a brief summary is better than nothing.

Thorne (230:378) goes into detail in describing the processes of the interview: (1) the client expresses and clarifies feelings; (2) client and counselor discuss objectively unrealistic or erroneous attitudes; (3) the client discusses his proposed solution and the counselor presents alternatives; (4) the counselor assigns definite tasks; (5) discussion follows on how to face problems realistically.

Thorne (229:179) believes that the normal person with an adjustment problem "still retains an intact intellect and a relatively stable emotional life . . . and [that] he is capable of effective self-regulation once he learns the causes of his difficulties and more suitable patterns of behavior with which to avoid maladjustment in the future."

There is no exact formula for counseling, according to Thorne (229:179), and a choice of method or technique depends on the client's receptiveness, negativism or resistance, ability to learn, emotional state, etc. One may use reassurance, palliation, or authoritative direction, depending on the case and the personality of the counselor. Thorne assumes that what is learned can be unlearned or relearned and that new learning either about self or about the world would be helpful.

The aim of directive interviewing is not to make moral judgments, condemn, or criticize, but to evaluate facts objectively and give explanations in a manner that is not offensive. There is no doubt that innumerable subjects have benefited from directive counseling, among them several thousands with whom the authors have been personally acquainted. It is the method most commonly used by faculty advisers and educational and vocational counselors. Many psychiatrists are more directive than nondirective in their methods. The writings of Williamson and Bordin (259:434ff.), Donald Paterson (258:80ff.), Thorne (230:378f.), Toven (34:501ff.), and many others give concrete evidence of its value.

In our opinion, directive interviewing has been most successful when

1. The client was relatively well adjusted and the problem was in an intellectual area.
2. A lack of information constituted the major problem.
3. Inner conflict was relatively slight or absent and the client had little insight into his problem.
4. The client was suffering from inferiority, anxiety, or insecurity, and reassurance gave temporary help.

5. The client was able to learn, unlearn, or relearn certain habits, attitudes, or ways of behavior through psychological explanation or information.

6. The personality trend was toward an impatient temperament.

Nondirective methods are believed by some to be too slow for the volatile, energetic, manic temperament. The manic client gets impatient and is likely to terminate contact with the counselor in the early stages of nondirective counseling. He is inclined to introduce apparently irrelevant subjects into the conversation. The intelligent manic is more inclined than other types of clients to respond to intellectual content in counseling.

The assumptions behind directive interviewing and counseling are as follows:

1. It is essentially an intellectual process.

2. Maladjustment in normals leaves a large percentage of the mind intact and therefore the mind can be used in learning or relearning.

3. Rewards or successful experiences will operate to fixate desirable behavior.

4. The counselor has superior information and experience and is competent to give advice about how a problem can be solved.

5. It is justifiable to use directive techniques to give temporary relief.

Shades and degrees of directiveness are observable among counselors. Many directive interviewers permit considerable freedom in the client's choice of subject and attack on his problem. Directive techniques are employed with success in some Veterans Administration offices, guidance centers, psychological clinics, and vocational guidance services in colleges, universities, and high schools.

Manipulation of environment is sometimes used by the directive counselor to induce situations where a client can feel success, a tension-provoking element can be removed, or a motivating element can be introduced. Changes in classes, activities, and the like, even a change of school, may be recommended.

Nondirective Counseling

Nondirective counseling has been exceedingly effective in the treatment of many types of emotional problems. It is increasingly used, not only in the treatment of the mentally ill, but in counseling college students and industrial employees. Roethlisberger and Dickson (187) report that interviewers in the Western Electric Hawthorne plant in Cicero, Illinois, found that the direct question elicited antagonistic or stereotyped responses. Changing to what they called the "indirect approach," they allowed the employee to choose the topic of conversation and followed the client's ideas as long as he talked spontaneously. The interviewer's job was to keep the employee talking.

Getting the student to assume responsibility for seeking a solution to his problem is a basic concept in nondirective counseling. The nondirective counselor makes it clear in an early interview that advice will not be offered, but that an effort will be made to help the student explore himself and think through his problem, potentialities, and opportunities. The counselor defines the limits of the interview and his relationship to the client. He explains the limits on the amount of responsibility a counselor can accept, the amount of time available to the student, and the roles of the counselor and counselee. The counselor can clarify what is being said and restate the problem. The counselor tries to make the client feel free to discuss anything he wishes and to use the time any way he sees fit.

Dr. Carl Rogers (190:20*ff.*) of Chicago University believes that counseling is ineffective if the counselor orders, threatens, exhorts, or offers solutions to problems. The nondirective counselor believes that no one can solve another's problems. The counselor can only help the student to solve his own problem. During the interview the client must be left free to make his own choices. Every client is presumed to have an inner strength which can be released to work out his own destiny. Belief in this core of strength is what is meant by respect for the integrity of the individual.

The belief that a permanent solution will be effected by the efforts of the student himself is based on a sound psychological principle that the most efficient learning takes place when the individual discovers for himself the correct answers. Even though the counselor's plan may be excellent and the student's plan very poor, it is still better for the student to develop and to try out his own plan. Gordon Allport (6:117*ff.*) comments on the use of self-propelled activity in modern therapy, citing the Kenny treatment for polio as an example of how assuming responsibility assists with recovery. Warters (252:95) says, "Integration requires that the student shall be free to reject any help offered; otherwise he will not acquire the independence necessary to real growth."

Important insights into the results of responsibility taking are expressed by Rogers (191:11*ff.*):

Is our aim in improving adjustment best described as curing an illness, or as freeing a person for growth in his own terms? To choose the former approach will lead to loss of confidence by the person himself, and social control by the few. To rest the locus of responsible evaluation with the individual is to have a psychology of personality that will lead to democracy in a deeper sense. These divergent trends to be dependent or independent are crucial in every person and in each counselor there is one trend to be an expert who can guide others, in contrast to another trend which feels respect for what the individual can do for himself, and a suspicion at least that this is the more effective learning.

The nondirective counselor feels that moralizing, rationalizing, and direct questioning put the student in a position where he has to defend himself rather than one where he can work toward a solution of his problem. In the nondirective interview, the client, not the problem, is the focal point, according to Rogers (190:28). (Incidentally, it is also well to avoid making the counselor the focal point. This is a real danger.) The goal of counseling is described by Rogers (190:28) as the "greater independence and integration of the individual."

Response to the emotional content of the student's remarks instead of to the intellectual content is practiced by the Rogerian school. The counselor recognizes that most maladjustments are results not of not knowing, but of the inability to make behavior conform to knowledge. In other words, emotions influence behavior as much as, or more than, knowledge.

Instead of waiting for the client to carry out a plan of action following the interview, the nondirective counselor expects a change to take place in the individual's adjustment while he is participating actively in the interview, as well as between interviews. If we might risk a comment on the essential difference between the two methods, the directive counselor places more emphasis on external changes, while the nondirective counselor puts his confidence in inner change. That is, the directive counselor believes that if his client takes action, enrolls in a new curriculum, joins a club, gets a new roommate, or whatever might seem to be the suitable step for him, inner changes will take place. He will have successful experiences, build up his self-confidence, and through actual practice learn to make acceptable responses to hitherto forbidding situations. The nondirective counselor believes that the inner changes must take place before the motivation is present for sustained action and before action will be meaningful to the client. We cannot be sure that satisfactions will accrue in sufficient proportions to establish desirable behavior patterns in either case, but the nondirective counselor believes that they will be more likely to accrue when action is a result of the client's own motivations.

Nondirective counseling follows approximately the following order:

1. The client states his reason for coming.
2. The counselor defines the limits of his responsibilities and the counseling situation, encouraging the client to make use of the relationship to think through his problem. The counselor's attitude is, "I am a helper; I believe in you; I do not have the answers, but perhaps I can help you find the answers. We may not find them in one interview. If you need to come back, I will help you as long as you need me." The counselor states the amount of time available for the first interview.
3. The counselor responds to the emotional content of the client's remarks. He avoids involvement of his own emotions in the interview. He does not express

surprise, shock, praise, or blame. He does not argue with the client or reassure him. He recognizes and clarifies and accepts negative feelings and the client's descriptions of feelings and actions showing aggression, inferiority, guilt, despair, lowered self-esteem, etc. The counselor verbalizes, "You feel resentful . . . suspicious . . . afraid . . . apprehensive . . . tortured . . . impatient . . . disgusted . . . uncomfortable . . . irritated . . . bitter . . . hurt . . . confused . . . ashamed . . . guilty. . . . You wish you didn't have to do this. You would like to. . . . You dislike. . . . You feel deeply interested. . . ."

(There is usually a preponderance of negative expressions during the early stages of counseling emotionally disturbed people, giving way to ambivalence and later to expressions of positive feelings.) The counselor responds to ambivalent feelings if they are present, "You feel two ways about this. You want to and you don't want to. You want to but you're afraid. You like your brother and at the same time you dislike him."

"If these are accurate portrayals of feeling," says Rogers (190:38), "the individual will go forward in a freer fashion." He will be released to work on his problem.

The counselor puts himself in the place of the client and feels with the client. He avoids going beyond the feelings expressed by the client and he uses the vocabulary of the client in expressing his feelings. This does not mean that he parrots the words of the client. The client may be making an intellectual statement while at the same time expressing emotional stress. In this case the counselor strives to respond to the emotional content.

Suppose the client says in a shaking voice, "My parents never consult me. They just buy my clothes and give them to me." The inexperienced counselor might respond, "You would like to choose your own clothes." The experienced counselor would probably say, "You resent this kind of treatment."

If the student sits silent and glowers, the counselor can say, "You wish you didn't have to come here" or "You feel angry." If the student refers in scornful tones to his teacher as an old maid, the counselor can say, "You don't like your teacher." To be effective these responses should not be tinged with agreement or disapproval.

Often the client will express his desire to throw full responsibility on the counselor. He may say, "What shall I do?" "What do you think I should do?" The directive counselor would probably respond, "You might do one of three things. . . ." The nondirective counselor would say, "You would like for me to decide for you." The extent to which the client really wants to solve his problems governs, to a considerable degree, the extent to which he can be helped and the amount of time which will be necessary for rehabilitation.

4. If the counselor thinks the interview has bogged down and nothing is being accomplished, he can restate the problem and what has been accomplished: "Let's see. Where are we now?" He must not go further than the student in defining the situation. (This step is omitted by some nondirectivists.) He can reflect feeling, "You feel stymied."

5. If counseling is effective, the client will eventually express faint positive feeling. Possibly several interviews will be required before he begins to show

insight into his adjustment. Rogers (190:39) says, "There is nothing which gives more surprise to the student who is learning this type of therapy for the first time than to find that this positive expression is one of the most certain and predictable aspects of the whole process. The more violent and deep the negative expressions (provided they are accepted and recognized), the more certain are the positive expressions of love, of social impulses, of fundamental self-respect, of desire to be mature."

6. The counselor recognizes and accepts the positive feelings, but not with praise or approval. Even praise is a moralistic judgment and is likely to block further expression.

7. The student continues to develop insight and *acceptance* of self. The counselor verbalizes.

8. The student takes small, faltering steps toward solving his problem. Rogers (190:41) says that if the student asks for help at this point, the counselor can "clarify the different choices which might be made. . . ."

9. The counselor observes less focusing on self by the client. Sometimes he begins to take an interest in the counselor for the first time. The client demonstrates that he knows he is becoming more independent.

10. The client takes definite action to solve his problem.

These steps are not clearly distinguishable in every case. Sometimes they merge into each other. Sometimes steps are taken between interviews. Sometimes a step is covered in one interview, or it may take a longer series.

The process, of course, is slightly different with each case. Progress may be slowed or blocked by current experiences or personal history of the client or by a misinterpretation by the counselor. Numerous cases could be quoted to show how progress was made by the client in spite of the fumblings of an inept counselor. Merely an opportunity for catharsis can be therapeutic.

The number of interviews necessary to achieve progress varies with every case, with the severity of the problem, and with the skill of the counselor. At the close of each interview, if further contacts seem advisable, the counselor can say, "Would you care to work on this again?" or "If you want to talk this over more thoroughly, I will be glad to set aside some time for you."

Sometimes the client will seek to prolong an interview unduly. If the time is up the counselor can say, "You wish you could stay longer" or "Possibly we can take this up in our next interview." In most cases the counselor should not permit the client to extend the time.

Rogers (189:5) admits that while this method is simple in principle, it is difficult for advisers to acquire because "it runs completely counter to all their previous experiences." Instead of the adviser saying to himself, "What do I think of this?" "What can I do about this?" "What is my judg-

ment of the problem?" he asks himself, "What attitude is this student expressing?" "How does he see the situation?"

The authors are indebted to Robert S. Wilson (formerly of the Counseling Bureau, Kansas State College) for calling our attention to Hiltner's (94:26*ff*.) analysis of the counselor-client relationship. To concentrate on what a client is trying to tell and not be diverted by one's own inner tensions is one of the most difficult aspects of counseling. In developing the habit of disciplined attention the counselor gains a sense of inner strength by which to admit that his tendency to speak up and show what he knows is a need to prop up his self-esteem. By accepting the pain of this insight one may then in a measure become free from a compulsion and concentrate more steadily upon the feelings of the client.

Regardless of how unfair the student's attitudes may seem to be, the adviser endeavors to reflect them as accurately and fairly as possible. Acceptance of the student's attitude by the counselor can be expressed in such simple responses as "I understand," "Yes, I see." If the student feels he is understood, he is able to go on and express his deeper feelings and attitudes. Moral judgments or lack of acceptance cause the student to repress his feelings and memories and block expression.

Discussing the counselor's role, Curran [2] says:

The very small verbal part the counselor plays in this release (of emotional confusion) might mislead him into thinking that he is not doing enough for the client. This would be a grave mistake. The counselor can do nothing more productive of therapy in the early interviews than to sit quietly and listen with sympathy and interest during these long releases. The more difficult the counseling case, the more necessary release appears to be. The counselor may begin to grow weary during these long releases which appear each time to go over the same ground and feel the interviews are getting nowhere. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Careful analysis of phonographic recordings of many interviews shows that definite progress often follows soon after these releases.

Reassurance. The counselor may find it hard to resist giving reassurance and encouragement to a client who lacks confidence and underestimates himself. Rogers (188:31) says, "Such responses . . . would seem to indicate on the counselor's part a limited confidence in the capacity of the client to understand and cope with his difficulties."

Praise or approval may make the client eager to please the counselor and block off expressions of feelings or descriptions of experiences which he fears would be unacceptable. *Actually reassurance is given when the counselor shows that he understands and accepts the client's feelings.*

A warm receptive attitude on the part of the counselor is motivating to

[2] Curran, Charles A., "Structuring the Counseling Relationship: A Case Report," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 39, 1944, 189*ff*. (Reprinted in 34:298.)

the client. The client should feel that the counselor is "for him," not that he is evaluating him.

Indicating Acceptance. The tone of voice in which a counselor response is made can indicate approbation, doubt, or reproach. The response, "You feel rebellious," can be made to show understanding, but stated with certain inflections, might imply that the client is unreasonable or ill-tempered.

The adjective to describe an emotion which is being expressed should be carefully chosen. The word "impulsive" might occur to a counselor whose client says he likes to do things on the spur of the moment, but in some localities this word has unsavory connotations. "Spontaneous," "freedom to act," "feel you have to do it," might be substituted.

Responding to a Long Client Statement. Sometimes the client will make a long involved statement in which he expresses several emotions, not necessarily conflicting, but a variety of feelings. The counselor may be confused, not knowing which emotion to define. (A counselor who was learning nondirective techniques was heard to observe, "the counselor really directs the course of the interview because he chooses which of many client feelings to respond to.")

He may tend to reflect the feeling expressed in the client's last statement. He may want to recognize the client's grasp on his problem, any positive expression, his needs or confusion, and still he knows that too long a response may block further expression. A summary of dominant feelings might be attempted. "You are beginning to feel that your problem is more than just one of vocational choice, that feelings of inferiority are part of it, and that you are making progress in several ways" might be adequate. The opportunity to develop the response further may be given by the client. Then the counselor responds to additional feelings previously expressed.

Curran [3] says:

The counselor makes what might be called a "forking" response. . . . This kind of double-pronged response after releases of this sort seems to be an essential part of the structuring process. The client goes only very gradually into the deeper problems that are troubling him; the counselor must in response indicate to him that the relationship is not limited to any particular type of problem. Thus, students will come to discuss a class difficulty, and as the interview continues begin to indicate other problems. The fact that he has these other problems is usually only cautiously suggested by the student. If the counselor is insensitive to these suggestions of deeper need, the student, after one or two attempts, will feel bound merely to discuss scholastic difficulties.

Progress in Spite of Counselor. However, a fumbling response on the

[3] Curran, Charles A., "Structuring the Counseling Relationship: A Case Report," *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 39, 1944, 189*ff*. (Reprinted in 34:298.)

part of the counselor may only delay the process, not block it. If the client feels a real interest on the part of the counselor, he may try again to express feelings which have been overlooked.

An illustration of the repeated attempts of a client to work on his emotional problem in spite of counselor ineptness is given here.

The client has described his home situation as full of conflict. His father was described as irresponsible and grasping.

CLIENT: I want to ask you a question. About six years ago my home was moneyless, luxuryless, and now after I've done a lot of work and helped out, I have a feeling I didn't get much out of it.

THERAPIST: You mean financially?

C: Not necessarily. I'd like to join the Alaska Game Commission, do a lot of hunting, but when I'm home in the summer I average $800 to $1,000 a month and I sorta hate to leave that.

(*The therapist fails to respond to feeling. The client is expressing, "I feel cheated. What's the use? I do more than my share and I'm not appreciated." After a digression into the subject of Alaska, farm work, school, an expensive notebook, the client comes back to his conflict with his father.*)

C: I've tried to soft soap the old boy and not disagree but he immediately starts overriding you again. One time I woke up and caught him going through my papers. I've got to be suspicious of him all of the time. Every time I go home he has to ask a lot of questions and got quite personal. He's the snoopiest person I ever knew. He asks questions in such a subtle way that if you're not careful you find that you're giving him exactly the information he wants.

T: You feel that you have to be suspicious of him all the time? That he is always trying to get something out of you?

(*This is an accurate response and the client goes on to relieve his feelings.*)

C: I feel guilty about things at home. I think I have done my share so far as mother is concerned. I don't think the other . . . I might have been a little more subtle about it. Not caused so much trouble. I still want to go to Alaska. Not many guys get a chance to. Especially guys like me that want to.

T: Much as you would like to, it doesn't seem practical?

(*The therapist misses the feelings of self-doubt, indecision, desire to escape. For the next interview the client brought with him some notes he had been making on his own feelings of inferiority and relations with his father. He indicated that he was going to be conciliatory with his father, but again expressed doubt.*)

T: You feel if you try to meet him halfway that it wouldn't do any good.

C: I think I have been meeting him halfway, easily. Sort of a barbed wire

meeting, but I don't know—I think I will try the angle on him and see what it will do. It can't hurt anything and might help a little.

These excerpts illustrate Curran's statement that "the client will tend to repeat feelings that have not been adequately recognized by the counselor." The client was transferred to another counselor who "stayed with him" when he expressed resentment, doubt, indecision, and desire to work on his emotional conflict and to establish better relations with his father. He ultimately enrolled in a suitable curriculum, did well in it, and made progress toward adjustment.

Giving Information. The nondirective counselor recognizes the difference between the expression of conflict or emotion and a direct request for information. Questions about how to enroll or opportunities in a given occupation require a straightforward answer.

Sometimes, however, the client will finish a long involved statement of how he feels with a direct question, "Don't you think so?" "What do you think of a situation like that?" "What would you do?" "Where could I find out?" In this case the counselor should choose the dominant feelings to define and ignore the question. If he responds accurately to the client's feelings the client will probably continue to explore his problem.

Meaning of Silence. Sometimes the counselor feels that a period of silence is embarrassing or nonproductive. This is not necessarily true. The client may be reviewing experiences surrounding the development of an attitude he has expressed or struggling to verbalize an emotion. The counselor's comment at this point may be regarded as an interruption or may lead the client away from a deep-seated problem he needs to discuss.

On the other hand, Rogers (188:106) says that a long silence on the part of the counselor may be misinterpreted by the client to indicate that the counselor is "approving, disapproving, contemptuous, bored." The counselor may decide it is wise to respond, "Would you like to tell me more about this?" or "You were reminded of another experience" or "You were describing . . . would you care to speak of that?"

The counselor may summarize, "We reviewed your experiences with . . ." or "You figured this much out. . . ."

Client Resentment. Feelings of resentment toward the counselor are sometimes expressed by the client at a point where the conversation gets close to an uncomfortable subject. Exploring one's own inadequacies is hard work, and the client may discover things about himself which he would rather not examine. He may make the painful discovery that a parent or friend shows him less affection than he needs. He may prefer to express resentment toward the counselor rather than criticize himself or people close to him.

Resentment may be expressed toward the counselor when the client realizes that he must take the responsibility for making his own decisions. Many people would rather have their decisions made for them. Expressing resentment toward a counselor, a client said, "I went to be told what to do and he didn't tell me." Rogers (188:68) describes a client who said, "You make me think for myself and I don't like it."

Resentment toward the counselor is not necessarily evidence that progress is not being made. The feeling should be reflected, "You're not sure you want to tell me about this. "It is painful to remember this." "You feel you have gone as far as you can with this." "You feel this is a waste of time."

In one of his passages on client resistance Freud (74:256) says, "There are periods in which one feels that the patient's desire to put the analyst in the wrong, to make him feel his impotence, to triumph over him, has completely ousted the worthier desire to bring the illness to an end."

Mowrer (145:490) elaborates on the subject of resistance:

A neurotic is a person in whom there is a kind of inner debate, or conflict, which has been partially resolved by repression of one of the contending parties. When such a person comes into therapy, it is as if the therapist is invested by the patient, slowly or quickly, with the attributes of the repressed part of his personality. The debate which has previously gone on between the two contending factors within the one individual is now externalized as a struggle between the patient and the therapist.

Resentment toward authority is common among clients. If the counselor is regarded as an authoritarian figure, resistance will surely mount in the client.

Clients who expect to be given a quick formula for solving a problem sometimes express resentment toward the counseling process. A high school student who had asked for vocational guidance led into a discussion of her emotional involvement with a married man. After a description of relationships with her parents, their indifference and lack of affection, she said, impatiently, "What has this really got to do with it?" While she had expressed a need for emotional support from her parents and the satisfaction she felt in having the affection of an adult, she was reluctant to explore the experiences which had contributed to the situation.

Should the counselor, at this point, offer a psychological explanation? Some clients might be able to profit by it, to make use of it. On the other hand, the client's progress might be halted or the client could feel that the problem had been solved before she was really ready to handle the situation.

If the counselor offers an explanation, he may take away from the client the opportunity to see relationships for herself, to do her own thinking. A change in the counselor's role may confuse the client in her concept of

her own role in the counseling process as a person who can exercise initiative and take responsibility. The hesitant steps already taken toward independence may have to be retraced.

Client Dependency. The same client, after exploring her relationships with her parents and recognizing that her need for affection and emotional security had not been met, said, "Now I've told you everything. I haven't kept one thing back. Now what do we do?" The interview continued:

THERAPIST: You feel we should be able to arrive at a decision.
CLIENT: Why don't you just tell me what to do. I wouldn't listen to my mother, because she's prejudiced and narrow-minded and she doesn't understand me. I respect your judgment. I would listen to you.
T: You would like me to make the decision for you.
C: I would like you to say where you think I have done right or wrong.
T: You are beginning to wonder what I think of you.
C: People make an awful fuss about it when someone breaks a convention and yet they think it's all right to get into international dogfights and break one of the ten commandments.
T: You are trying to decide whether you were wrong or how wrong.
C: I don't understand this world. I think you could help me understand it. Why won't you just tell me?
T: If I were to try to tell you, my ideas and standards and values would not be exactly the same as yours. You have your own values and you have the resources to make your own decisions. It would not be right for me to try to make you accept mine.

Although this last response was a digression from the previous nondirective pattern, it was accepted by the client as an expression of belief in her and she continued her contacts.

A similar situation arose in the case of a woman whose husband was seeking a divorce. She had expressed the need for emotional security, fear of being adrift without ties, anxiety for the future, resentment against her husband. "If I give him a divorce, that means he'll win—I lose the battle" expressed part of her conflict.

She had explored her relations with her husband and had begun to talk about her mother, when she began to have trouble expressing herself. Her attitude was something like this, "I've gone over the things that are worrying me now. These old experiences are irrelevant. What good does this do?"

The counselor went into an explanation of the psychological implications of childhood experiences, family relations, etc. The client expressed confusion and finally said, dubiously, "Well, you know best. You're the

doctor. You must know." The client terminated contacts shortly after this interview.

Both these clients were expressing the desire to be dependent on the counselor. They were testing previously explained limits to see if the counselor would give in and let them lean on him. Perhaps the psychological explanation takes too much responsibility away from the client. On the other hand, if the client's dependency needs are not met, at least in part, possibly he will feel rejected by the counselor, a result which also distorts the client's concept of the counselor as an accepting listener. We are indebted to Counselor Robert S. Wilson (formerly of the Counseling Bureau, Kansas State College) for calling our attention to the possibility that the refusal of the counselor to let the client lean on him may be actual rejection.

The best results might be obtained from letting the client lean a little, at the same time defining the situation, letting him know that he is leaning. In this case, the correct response might be, "Maybe we can work this out together."

Wilson (264) cites the case of a client who had been given shock therapy in a hospital for the mentally ill and who had been released (while he was still in an acute dependency stage) with the admonition, "We can't let you lean on us." The implications for less serious cases are that while we aim at ultimate independence, the counselor must use his judgment as to whether the client is ready for it. He will not learn to walk alone all at once.

Positive Expressions. Following improvement in emotional adjustments, clients frequently express sentiments such as these: "I feel I had to get to the root of the trouble myself," "The counselor helped me figure out a plan and helped me see the hidden aspects," "One has to make one's own decisions." [4]

Many clients also express feelings of relief: "I don't feel tired any more," "I feel as if a great weight had been lifted," "I feel as if a tight band had been taken off my head."

Anxiety. The counselor or faculty adviser is often called upon to handle a problem which involves extreme anxiety in his client or pupil. Anxiety in the normal human being can be resolved or even used to motivate problem-solving behavior. In the maladjusted, it inhibits constructive behavior or produces socially unacceptable behavior by which the client attempts to reduce his anxiety.

The basis may be an act or habit of which the client is ashamed, or

[4] Taken from Flora Smith, "An Evaluation Study of the Kansas State Counseling Bureau," thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, Kansas State College.

it may be the result of indecision, of repeated failures to secure love, approval, and social acceptance or to achieve success in school or work. The fear of being unable to measure up to the standards of family, friends, or employers can produce persistent anxiety which, in turn, inhibits productivity and invites more failure.

Anxiety is an emotional state and cannot be treated by an exclusively intellectual process. The client must retrace emotional experiences leading to the maladjustment before he can make his intellect and emotions work together. Mowrer (145:601) says:

> Personality development involves many "choice points," and the child, if he adopts a wrong strategy, takes a misleading, self-defeating path at a crucial stage of his development, has to go back to that stage, at least at the level of thought and feeling and, with the help of the therapist, find another avenue of development which will lead to the goal of adult adjustment and personal maturity.

Treating Emotional Crises. Nondirective techniques are useful in many situations where emotion is involved. This incident will illustrate how they were used with an overwrought parent. A student's disappearance is being reported by telephone to the boy's father. He explodes verbally, "What's the matter with you guys up there that you didn't find this out sooner?" The counselor's impulse is to defend the school or to counterattack with a remark reflecting on the parent, but he replies, "You feel awfully upset." The father ejaculates, "Who wouldn't be upset? What are you going to do about it? Are you just going to sit around and do nothing?" The counselor replies, "I know how deeply disturbed you must be and I can understand that you may be angry with us." He states what has been done and suggests that the parent see him on the following morning.

The father enters the office, looking fatigued and worried. The counselor says, "You're pretty much disturbed."

FATHER: I'm just sick. We're both sick. His mother's in bed and I haven't been able to keep my food down.

THERAPIST: It makes you feel bad all over.

F: I just can't understand why he would do such a thing!

T: It's a shock to you?

F: His mother has heart trouble. This thing has about bowled her over.

T: That worries you, too.

F: He's a smart boy and we have done everything for him. Why would he treat us like this?

T: You're disappointed.

F: He had ability. I don't see why he didn't use it.

T: It's a real problem to you.

F: He shouldn't have treated us this way. He needs a good lesson.

T: You're angry and disappointed, too.

F: Look at the money we've spent, and the things we've gone without. Now look at him.

T: You've sacrificed and spent your money and it hasn't paid off.

F: I just can't believe it. I just can't think he would do such a thing. I can't think what to do.

T: You're bewildered. It's hard to know what to do.

F: It's just unreasonable! Of course, his mother did say if he didn't make his grades, he would just have to get out and shift for himself.

T: You feel that might have something to do with it.

F: I can't think where he would go. I have wondered about foul play, but I really don't think that is the answer. He must have gone to work or enlisted in the army. I wish I had talked more with him when he was home. I should have spent more time with him.

T: You regret this.

F: He's a sensitive boy. I should have tried harder to understand him.

T: You feel you might have done something to prevent this.

F: Parents are so busy making a living. I'm one of them. There are things I could have done. I could have done better.

T: You feel guilty.

F: That's it. I feel guilty.

The conversation continues to explore the feelings of the father and finally covers what has been done and the plans to communicate with the boy, if possible. The father concludes the interview, "I feel better. I think I can eat something." The father's expressions of animosity have disappeared and he began in later contacts to make rational suggestions about finding his son.

The Debatable Short Cut. The urge to save time can lead a counselor into error. He knows so well, at times, just what the client should do. The dull student drudging away at a highly academic curriculum might do very well in a less demanding field. The student with a drive toward music may have a pattern of interests and abilities which indicate business as a suitable choice. Bixler (25) says, "The counselor cannot really save the student any time, by making his decision for him." Regardless of its suitability, if a decision is forced on the client before he is ready, he may bounce back to another counselor, leave school, or fumble his opportunities.

Other Views on Counseling

Froelich (76:10*ff.*) summarizes:

Counseling provides a situation in which the individual is stimulated (1) to evaluate himself and his opportunities; (2) to choose a feasible course of action; (3) to accept responsibility for his choice; and (4) to initiate a course of action in line with his choice. Counseling is properly subsumed under the heading of the guidance program because it is only one of the functions of the total program. The use of the phrase counseling and guidance is objectionable because it is like saying the part and the whole.

Froelich believes we should distinguish counseling from interviewing. He states that fact-finding interviews are not counseling. Although the interview is a major vehicle for counseling they are not synonymous terms.

Froelich's analysis of counseling assumes that several processes have already gone on. He assumes the student's initial motivation for seeking help, the counselor's gathering of information about the student, and the student's progress to the stage where he can make use of the information. It is true that a large number of students arrive at this stage very rapidly and unobtrusively.

The thesis that each counselor develops, to a degree, his own most effective procedures is illustrated by the adaptations and applications made by Giles Theilmann (227) in his work with high school students with certain types of problems. He has analyzed the counseling process according to five steps borrowed from Sorokin's [5] writings on world affairs. The steps are (1) crisis: the student has violated a rule, made a mistake, skipped a class, cheated, etc.; (2) ordeal: the pressure is on, the student cannot get back into class, his credit is canceled, his privileges are withdrawn, etc.; (3) catharsis: he tells the counselor how he feels and relieves his mind; (4) grace: he makes plans to remedy the situation; (5) new life: he does better and progress is recognized.

In practice, Theilmann includes a number of in-between steps. He may interpret the student to the teacher and the teacher to the student. Often the teacher's attitude is modified at the same time that the student is developing a new point of view. Although he would be considered directive in the sense that he gives considerable information, he accepts both teacher and student and does not impose his point of view on either. The result is often a compromise with both parties giving in on points they previously may have defended stubbornly. He shows that he understands and accepts both the student and the teacher, but he also indicates that he expects both to take responsibility.

[5] Sorokin, Pitirim Aleksandrovich, *Crises in Our Age*, E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1941, quoted by E. Stanley Jones in an address in Topeka, Kans., 1948.

He explains to teachers and parents that none of the steps can be omitted and that the process cannot be unduly hastened. The problem may be presented thus, "This girl is in a state of ordeal, in step number two. What can we do to help her get through these stages to step number five?" His explanations based on the foregoing brief outline seem to be readily acceptable and understandable to teachers and parents. Thus he has been able to overcome some of the obstacles in the way of communication between student personnel workers and their colleagues and patrons.

An incident described by Theilmann illustrates that he has developed his own devices for reflecting feeling. Two students were sent to him for unexcused absences. He let them tell him all about it. They said they were in trouble and couldn't get back into class. He finally said:

Well, once there was a man who was very efficient at finding mules which were lost. Whenever mules were lost, he could always find them. He was asked how he knew where to go. He answered that he tried to think how a mule would think and then he went where he thought a mule would go. Now, I can only put myself in your place and see how I would feel if I were you. Let me see. First, I would think whether I really wanted to get back in class. Then I would think what I could do. I might think of going to ask the teacher if he would let me back in. Then I would think what I would do to show him I really wanted to take that class. And I wouldn't be too surprised if he didn't let me in right away, etc.

The effectiveness of these or any procedures depends on the quality of relationship between the client and the counselor. For Theilmann they work, because the client feels understood and because he recognizes the counselor's sincerity and good will. The process includes clarification of the limits of the situation and what action is open to the client. It permits the application of pressure from without if the client is unable to admit that a problem exists. This oversimplified description of a part of Theilmann's system illustrates the way in which a counselor might adapt the information at his disposal to suit a practical situation.

Elton (65:732*ff.*) studied the transcripts of 78 interviews to find out whether throwing responsibility on the client in interview is a useful technique. On the basis of his findings he concludes that:

(*a*) Counselee insight is not likely to develop when the counselor assumes, through choice or necessity, the entire responsibility for the direction of the interview. (*b*) The middle ratings of responsibility tend to be accompanied by the greatest gains in stated insights. (*c*) A harmonious relationship between the client and counselor is most likely to be obtained if the responsibility for the direction of the interview is shared between the counselor and the client.

Techniques studied were clarification, tentative analysis, interpretation, and urging. "Evidence of interview outcomes consisted of ratings of a

growth in counselee insight during the discussion unit, the working relationship between counselor and client, and division of responsibility for the direction of the interview." A five-point scale was used with a rating of 1 meaning the highest degree of counselor acceptance of responsibility for the direction of the interview, and a rating of 5 meaning the highest degree of client acceptance of responsibility for the direction of the interview.

The use of urging as a counselor technique appeared likely to keep the counselee from taking responsibility. Every technique appeared superior to urging in obtaining client responsibility taking. If a counselor clarifies, he does not introduce a new idea, but throws the responsibility on the client for continuing. If he urges, he introduces a new idea.

Elton concludes that responsibility taking by the client is an important interview outcome or criterion. He believes that responsibility, insight, and working relationship are not goals in themselves, but lead to ultimate goals.

Sharing Responsibility. While a good deal is written about throwing the full responsibility on the client, this attitude on the part of the counselor may reflect rejection of the client. The counselor implies that he assumes some responsibility when he makes his services available to the client. Epithets such as "the wax model," applied to the nondirective counselor, fail to give an accurate picture of the counselor's role. He is actively involved in the interview when he feels with the client and accurately reflects his feelings. We might conclude that the most productive relationship exists when the responsibility is shared but is gradually shifted to the client. This attitude is not necessarily inconsistent with the assumption that the client has within him the potentialities to make progress to the stage where he can solve his own problems.

Attitude of the Counselor. A study of the ideal counseling relationship was made in 1951 by the staff of the Kansas State College Counseling Bureau under the direction of E. Paul Torrance (238). Using Stephenson's Q-technique methodology, he developed a list of characteristics of the counseling relationship. The instrument constructed was administered to a sample of twenty experienced counselors and counselor trainers in nine Middle Western states, a group of psychology students who had not had a course in counseling techniques, and a group who had had such a course.

The items considered by the counselors as most characteristic of the ideal counseling relationship were:

The counselee feels free to say anything he likes.

An atmosphere of mutual trust and confidence exists.

The counselor accepts all feelings which the counselee expresses as normal and understandable; leaves the counselee free to make his own

choices; is really able to understand the counselee; helps the counselee develop his self-concept; conveys by tone of voice a high degree of ability to share the counselee's feelings; acts neither superior nor submissive to the counselee.

Least characteristic of the ideal relationship were the following traits: the counselor lets the counselee know that everything he says will be held against him; shows no understanding of the feelings of the counselee; feels hostile or disgusted toward the counselee; always tries to prevent the counselee from weeping; acts in a superior manner; attempts to keep the counselee from expressing anger; reacts in terms of his own problems.

A coefficient of correlation of .84 was found between opinions of counselors and students who had had the course in principles and techniques of counseling, and of .78 between opinions of counselors and students who had not had the course.

The Academic Adviser. The foregoing remarks lean toward the nondirective point of view. Attention has been directed toward personal problems which might come to the attention of the faculty adviser as well as to the psychotherapist.

The academic adviser commonly plays a more directive role than the psychotherapist. His advisees are assigned to him. He is concerned with helping them enroll in suitable curricula, find a suitable vocational choice, choose a college, achieve according to their abilities, attend classes regularly, etc. He cannot overlook the influence of emotions on his charges and the need of some of them for psychotherapy, but he works primarily in the field of information and with the mechanics of getting his advisee in the right slot.

One of the most common questions from inexperienced counselors is, "How do you start an interview?" There is no set pattern. The opening question, "How can I help you?" or "What's on your mind today?" may draw a response from the advisee that he needs information or help in making a choice or decision.

Defining a feeling which is expressed by the client's face may be a starting point: "You feel unhappy," "You're not sure you wanted to come," "You feel depressed," "You're pretty mad." The counselor must be sure he is defining the feeling accurately.

The academic adviser may choose to begin the first interview with a question which requires a statement of goals, "What do you want to accomplish during your high school (or college) years?"

Test results or autobiography may furnish the information for an opening remark. "I understand you are interested in airplane mechanics," etc. The dean of girls in a large high school says that she collects several items of information on each new girl before she interviews her. She notes her membership in extra-class activities, whether she has had brothers and

sisters in school, favorite subjects, favorite books, etc. She reads every autobiography and makes a note of every girl who checks the item in the entrance forms: "Do people find more fault with you than you deserve?" These items of information help the dean to understand her students and to make the initial contact.

Darley [6] describes how the inexperienced counselor feels at the beginning of the first interview and how he might expect some of his clients to feel. He compares the feelings of inexperienced interviewers to stage fright. He says the person being interviewed may be nervous in the presence of a stranger, anxious for some kind of help; may give the appearance of arrogance or anger, merely to cover up uncertainty; may feel that someone is going to pry into personal affairs.

He gives important hints to the neophyte: the counselor should avoid elaborate verbalization, patronizing the client, presenting too many ideas or facts at once, overtalkativeness, excessive questioning, use of the personal pronoun "I." "The interviewer should appear unhurried even though many people are waiting to see him."

Darley reminds us that the client must be permitted to participate. "Make very sure that you know what it is that he really wants to talk about before giving any information or answers."

He warns that the best way to cut off any conversational flow is to ask a question which can be answered by "yes" or "no." For "So you want to start a small business?" the counselor might substitute, "How did you happen to think of starting your own business?" or, better still, "Tell me what you have in mind when you talk about starting a small business."

If the client asks a question regarding facts and the counselor does not know, Darley recommends a frank admission. The counselor can find out for him or tell him where to get the information.

He agrees with a previously described point of view: "We do not learn if the halting expressions of our deep feelings and attitudes are received with scorn, a casual bit of reassurance, obvious embarrassment. . . ."

Problems of Students. Berdie [7] suggests the use of the problem check list for finding clues to use in counseling. The check list described provided for students to check problems which they had not been able to solve adequately and to double-check problems they would like to discuss with a counselor. He found that while students checked social and personal problems as inadequately solved, they did not often indicate a desire to discuss them with a counselor.

He comments, "We have found that when an item is double-checked,

[6] Darley, John G., "The Interview in Counseling," U.S. Department of Labor, Government Printing Office, Bulletin 9, 1946, 12ff. (Reprinted in 34:265ff.)

[7] Berdie, Ralph F., "An Aid to Student Counselors," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 2, 1942, 281ff. (Reprinted in 34:274ff.)

the most convenient and profitable thing the counselor can do is to refer directly to the item and give the student an opportunity to elaborate upon his response. When only a single check is placed opposite the item, however, this can seldom be done." He does, however, describe the indirect use in interview of information gathered from the single-checked responses. Thus, if the item, "Lack self-confidence," is single-checked, the counselor can be prepared to recognize in the interview a faltering expression of the feeling.

A problem check list was used by Newberry (239) in her study of problems of Kansas State College freshmen in 1946. Thirty-seven and five-tenths per cent of all problems checked related to study and school. Vocational indecision was second in frequency, these items totaling 23.4 per cent of all problems checked.

A study by Flora Smith (213), based on 181 returned questionnaires from college students who had been counseled, showed that more students had received help with social problems than had expressed a need for help in this area. It would seem that students are reluctant to admit the existence of personal problems or to discuss them with a counselor.

The adviser or counselor encounters many students who underevaluate or overevaluate their abilities. Torrance (239) compared the self-evaluations of more than 1,000 college freshmen with their tested abilities, interests, and personal adjustment. He found that "almost two-thirds of those who actually rank in the lower fourth in scholastic ability rank themselves in the upper fourth and over 92 per cent rank themselves in the upper half." About 50 per cent appeared to have a reasonably realistic picture of themselves with reference to their occupational possibilities. Women appeared to be more realistic in their self-evaluations but more inclined than men toward underevaluation. "Poor personal adjustment is frequent among both over- and under-evaluators," according to Torrance's study.

Those whose abilities place them in the bottom fourth expect to make just as good grades as do those who rank in the top fourth. This gives some picture of the amount of frustration and disappointment which is inevitable unless these students are able to become more reasonable in their self-concepts and in their expectations of themselves. Over two-thirds of those who are dismissed at Kansas State College grossly over-evaluate themselves. Over half of those who are placed on probation or are reinstated over-evaluate themselves.

Overevaluators prefer to blame their lack of achievement on laziness, poor study habits, etc., rather than to recognize inferior ability. They frequently complain of headaches and nervousness. Clinical analysis of representative cases of overevaluators indicated that they are characterized by "socialized anxiety," conformity to social mores, overinhibition, and

fear of being criticized or punished. The overevaluator has commonly participated in such socially approved activities as Sunday school, church, Boy Scouts, 4-H clubs, etc., and held positions of leadership. "In spite of his overtly polite, accommodating, and considerate manner there is much dammed up aggression."

Abrupt explanation of his deficiencies by his adviser or counselor will do nothing to relieve his anxieties or aggressions and will doubtless do damage to his self-concept and his chances of arriving at suitable choices of classes, activities, and vocation. Acceptance of his limitations may come very slowly.

The counselor can use test scores, classroom marks, and instructors' comments to help the student to make his ambitions conform to his limitations, but if emotion enters the picture it should be defined and accepted. The counselor can show the student that he is interested in him and understands him even though it is necessary to give unpleasant information.

Bixler and Bixler believe (26:145ff.) that "the interpretation of low academic aptitude should be handled in a factual manner" and that persuasion toward a suitable choice of curriculum without explaining the client's scores is not effective. Such counselor explanations as "About two or three students out of one hundred with scores like yours succeed in pre-med" are recommended.

Bixler and Bixler's (26:150ff.) report of an interview illustrates how counseling techniques were used in connection with a report of low test scores.

STUDENT: (*Looks stunned, then confused.*)
COUNSELOR: This is awfully disappointing.
S: Yes, it is. I had hoped I'd find something I could succeed in.
C: It seems to leave you without anything to go into.
S: Yes, but I can do the work. I have trouble concentrating; my study habits are poor; I never studied in high school and I don't know how.
C: You feel the reason for your troubles is your poor study habits, not a lack of ability.
S: Yes, I didn't get good grades in high school, but I didn't study either. Now when I want to study I worry and get tense. My mind goes blank when I take tests.
C: You're pretty worried about your school work and that seems to make it harder to succeed. (*Pause.*)
S: It's my last hope. (*Head sinks on chest, lips quiver.*)
C: You're so upset about this you feel like crying.
S: (*Cries.*) I feel so silly. (*Counselor recognizes her embarrassment and she continues to cry and discuss various elements of her anxiety about*

school.) I've got to make good. I'm not as smart as most kids, that's true. There are some subjects that go over me, but I think I can make it. I don't know what to do.

C: You have to make good and yet you're afraid you can't. It leaves you pretty badly mixed up.

The student goes through the process Torrance describes of trying to find other reasons for poor grades than limited ability before recognizing that "I'm not as smart as most kids. . . ."

The underevaluator, according to Torrance, is commonly dependent, socially retiring, and emotionally immature. He is "unable to see himself clearly in any mature vocational role, and thus his vocational goals are either lacking or extremely vague. He is socially conforming, represses his aggression and hostility and is generally inhibited in the sphere of emotion and will." He takes refuge in theorizing and rationalizing. The problem is to help him to accept responsibility commensurate with his abilities.

Physical Factors. A client's emotional problems or learning deficiencies may be complicated by physical defects, the correction of which can contribute to adjustment. A ten-year-old child, a slow learner, was observed to daydream considerably and to have difficulty focusing his attention on his classwork. He appeared to place a high value on excursions and activities with his father, but he could remember few of the details of such experiences. He appeared to try very hard to do his classwork.

Some of his symptoms suggested preschizophrenia. Inability to focus attention and remember details might indicate extreme anxiety. However, the client was overweight, sleepy, and lethargic, and the counselor suggested to the parents that he be examined for thyroid deficiency by a physician. This proved to be a correct diagnosis, and the client's habits of attention and his level of achievement improved after taking thyroid tablets.

A client, twenty years old, appealed to his counselor for help because he found himself unable to keep up with other workers in the factory in which he worked. The quality of his work was satisfactory, but the quantity was so small that he was in danger of losing his job. He was fat, broad-hipped, undeveloped in musculature, and had no beard. His counselor suspected a lack of male hormones to be one of the sources of his trouble. Contact with a physician confirmed the suspicion. After suitable treatment, the client was able to improve his production record at the factory. When the counselor saw him after several months, the client reported that he had begun to shave and proudly demonstrated muscle development.

A medical technician was referred to a counselor because she was becoming less and less efficient in her work. The girl was suffering from

anxiety, but some symptoms indicated a physical disability also. The counselor discovered that she had been in the habit of taking large quantities of phenobarbital since childhood. The physician to whom she was referred prescribed a different drug with less toxic effect, gradually reducing the dose. Counseling was continued; the client talked over her most pressing problems with her counselor, moved from her home with an overdominating parent, made new friends, and during late stages of counseling appeared to be working efficiently and making progress toward adjustment.

The counselor, of course, cannot expect to act as diagnostician of physical ailments, but he can be aware of the physical factors which affect learning, performance, and emotional adjustment. Psychotherapy can be unproductive in cases where physical defects stand in the way of progress. The client may be in the position of trying to do the impossible, a hopeless state, which in itself could produce a neurosis.

Summary

The integration of the student personnel program into the high school and college can be facilitated if the counselor can help the faculty and administration improve their counseling techniques and acquaint them with available referral agencies. Both nondirective counselors and directive counselors profess respect for the inner integrity of the individual and his potentialities for solving his own problems. The directive counselor gives more information, points out more alternatives, and gives more reassurance and praise than the nondirective counselor. The nondirective counselor believes that changes within the individual's emotional understanding, attitudes, and motivations during the counseling interview will make outward changes in actions and habit patterns more permanent than if action precedes these inner changes. The nondirective counselor gives his client maximum freedom of expression and choice. There is some evidence to indicate that optimum conditions for improving adjustment prevail when responsibility is shared by the counselor and his client, but when responsibility is increasingly assumed by the client. Probing, exhortation, moral judgments, threats, urging, and the like are not productive of improved adjustment. An accepting attitude on the part of the counselor is most desirable.

CHAPTER 3 *The Social Context of Counseling*

The aim of the counselor is to help the client make an adjustment which will permit him to live harmoniously with the elements in his environment. It seems appropriate for the counselor to recognize what kind of society his clients are going to have to live in.

Sometimes the counselor finds it difficult to clarify his own attitude toward a client's violations of the conventions. He wants to register acceptance of the client and belief in his ability to work out a solution. In some cases, he feels that the client has a just complaint against society, and yet he knows that rehabilitation involves adjustment to the mores.

There are those students of personality who indict civilization or the "culture" for conditions which make mental health difficult or impossible or which make maladjustments inevitable. The complexity of the modern world, inconsistencies between practice and stated values, lack of acceptable outlets for biological needs, economic insecurity are among the aspects of our culture which have been blamed for personal maladjustments.

Other writers on the subject imply that the culture is a good culture and that the normal individual is one who can adopt and internalize the values of his elders. We see this view reflected in the writings of Mowrer:

Human culture, far from being indifferent to human suffering and unhappiness, is eminently concerned with them; . . . traditions and social values represent some of our soundest guides to psychological and social reality. [145:538.]

Because of the harmonious relationship which the individual-as-a-whole has with his environment, the ego is on correspondingly good terms with the conscience. As common sense fully recognizes, such an individual's outward behavior is heavily influenced, not only by prescriptions that are currently enforced by the external world, but also by the dictates of conscience. Such a person is said to have 'good character' and is characterized by self-control, which is to say that controlling agencies in the environment have been internalized, incorporated and accepted by the total self. [145:521.]

We are suggesting the need for a radically changed attitude, generally, to-

ward social authority, toward the internal representative of that authority, and indeed toward the validity and vitality of the whole human enterprise. [145:540.]

Mowrer makes repeated reference to conscience:

Much of man's trouble is rooted in a troubled conscience. [145:562.] There is such a thing as conscience pleasure. [145:538.] Neurotics are persons who are ethically stunted. [145:572.] Anxiety comes, not from repressed sexuality or pent-up hatred, but from a denial and defiance of the forces of conscience. [145:568.] Anxiety . . . is a product, not of too little self-indulgence and satisfaction, but of too much; a product, not of over-restraint and inhibition, but of irresponsibility, guilt and immaturity. [145:538.]

The objection is sometimes advanced that neurotics, far from being on bad terms with their consciences, let themselves be dominated by moral scruples only too completely; and in support of this argument, persons are pointed to who are obsessively clean, thrifty, punctual, honest or over conscientious in some other way. However, such behavior is invariably a "smoke screen," which is designed to deflect suspicion from the individual's real weaknesses and characterological "soft spots." [145:552.]

Perhaps this selection of quotations from Mowrer exaggerates his position, but it would seem to rule out any explanation of the anxiety which results from a hopeless economic situation, from excessive demands made on a person by his parents or marriage partner, from ambition which is inconsistent with innate abilities.

The Negro who is forced to work at a job which does not use his abilities or training, who daily meets with disrespect and callousness, who is limited in his recreational opportunities, and who sees no hope for any improvement in his environment is a likely candidate for neurosis. The only alternatives seem complete submission and passive acceptance of an inferior role or a break with reality which relieves him of responsibility.

The youth who is brought up to be completely dependent on his parents, who has never made his own decisions, may develop extreme anxiety when he is confronted with the necessity for independence. His lack of experience in problem solving has not prepared him to meet the grown-up situations in which he finds himself. The result may be painful indecision and inaction or a regression to former dependency.

The young man or woman who has been reared in a community where church, school, and parents are considered infallible, where great emphasis is put on superficial conformity, where standards are overrigid and the church is divorced from social action may be faced with a dilemma when he leaves the home community and begins to be exposed to unfamiliar ideas. The concept of the "good citizen" as one who goes to church, achieves financial security, gives to reputable charities, and mows his front lawn regularly is endangered. The youth is reluctant to adopt the

unfamiliar hypothesis that the responsible citizen is also concerned with problems of unemployment, exploitation of workers, opportunities for the underprivileged (as opposed to charity), understanding of peoples of other races. The new ideas intrude on and invalidate his cherished beliefs, the basic philosophy from which he has always operated and which guided his parents and respected citizens in his community. They involve assuming formidable responsibilities. To the anxiety which may be produced by living in a restrictive society is added anxiety of indecision.

The child who has been rejected by his parents and whose associates and teachers fail to supply the missing necessity may suffer from anxiety, among other disabling symptoms. The chances are that his parents were also rejected in their childhood. Where can we fix the responsibility?

The child from a broken home may find that neither parent takes responsibility for him. A college student in this situation was harried by unkept promises. Her allowance seldom came promptly. She was constantly embarrassed by unpaid bills. Unwelcome at either parent's home, lacking in strong ties, she developed uncontrollable anxiety and tried to commit suicide.

The assets and liabilities of Western society are reviewed by Gardner Murphy (151:905ff.) He says, "There is scarcely any doubt that the most serious frustration of individual personality will be found in the field of security needs" (economic insecurity, and uncertainty as to affection, status, prestige).

Guilt may be a part of any of these anxiety-producing situations, but guilt resulting from overdependency, being unable to measure up to expectations, failure in the face of insurmountable odds can certainly be distinguished from legitimate guilt. Guilt feelings which result from wearing shorts in public, differing with one's parents, criticizing the church, may be felt in undue proportion to the acts which provoke them.

Some clients are undeniably guilty of real offenses. What should be the counselor's attitude toward them? Hiltner (93:31ff.) points out that a counselor cannot shed his convictions while counseling. They are a part of him and will be of the essence of himself and his role as a counselor. While he may declare his convictions elsewhere, there are good reasons why he does not expound them in counseling. That distracts from the main task of drawing out the feelings of the client and noncoercively assisting him to make his decisions wisely.

The counselor is sometimes accused of condoning misbehavior on the grounds that the culture is at fault. This would indeed be an unrealistic attitude. He knows that violating the conventions and moral precepts does not lead to satisfaction, productivity, fulfillment, happiness. If, on the other hand, we fail to recognize that practice falls far short of what

we preach and that some of the aspects of environment make unreasonable demands on the individual, we are equally unrealistic.

Clients who have been rejected by parents or others and who have violated the conventions in their efforts to find acceptance, sometimes express these feelings: "Physical love is the only kind of acceptance I have ever experienced. It is not the answer to my need because it was not complete acceptance in terms of respect, tenderness, and affection, but it is the best I have been able to get. Since social acceptability is also necessary to me, I may give up my unacceptable habits, but I can't be entirely happy about it."

If the counselor is determined to ignore the offenses of society against the individual, he cannot recognize this statement as an evidence of emerging maturity. The authors feel that it is a more honest statement of the situation than if the client were to say, "I will observe the conventions because society is entirely right and I am wrong."

Judging from the Kinsey report (109) a large proportion of the people ignore the conventions. Among political leaders, businessmen, and others in positions of authority, there is ample evidence of flagrant disregard for group welfare and human dignity. More disheartening are the complacency and indifference with which the average citizen views the distortion and violation of many of our fundamental precepts. In times of stress, we repeatedly resort to expediency instead of holding fast to our stated values. This phenomenon can be observed in situations ranging from the club committee meeting to international crises. Adjustment to the real world means recognizing these realities, too. If we define the normal individual as one who is able to internalize the values of society, we might be obliged to assume that the normal individual is very rare.

When we say that the well-adjusted individual has internalized the values of his culture, we need to define what they are. Do we mean respect for personality, extending beyond our own nation to all members of the human race, equal opportunity for all, tolerance, compassion, mercy, freedom of speech, press and assembly, self-determination for every nation? Or do we mean abstaining from the vices, paying our bills, and saying our prayers?

The nature of our "conflict culture" is analyzed by Gardner Murphy (151:909):

Not only is there economic conflict of man with man, class with class; there is value conflict. The fundamental conflict of values, resulting from three centuries of anti-authoritarian thought and conduct and capped by the present-day authority of the impersonal business code, means that there are several different *right* ways of behaving in every field of living.

The values of one community may differ from those of another. We have heard people reared in a restrictive community argue that admitting Negroes to college dormitories is neither Christian nor democratic, that some races are meant to dominate and others to submit, that an interest in social legislation is out of place in the church, that the United States should lend money to needy nations only if we get something out of it. Yet they are functioning at a high level of efficiency in their occupations or schoolwork and enjoying the respect of their associates. They are apparently well-adjusted personalities. The prevailing inconsistencies in definitions of values would appear to place an obligation on the counselor to help define and assess values.

It is sometimes thought that a child who is brought up to believe that we live in a good society and to accept the prevailing community practices as the "way" might be happier than the person who is aware from childhood that we ignore, in practice, many of our fundamental values. However, the intelligent person, in childhood and as he matures, cannot avoid discovering human inconsistencies. Is it not the better course to recognize these flaws in our culture and prepare the young for them? If youth accepts the culture as entirely good, whence comes the impetus for social reform and progress toward our ideals?

We have been talking about the social responsibility, not only of the counselor, but of all educational agencies. What are the limits of counselor responsibility? He might limit himself to the counseling situation, to helping his clients fit into society with a minimum of resistance. He knows that the client must adjust to society, not society to the individual. He knows that social approval and self-esteem in terms of productivity and behavior are important to his clients' fulfillment and that these satisfactions are jeopardized by socially unacceptable behavior. He can recognize emerging client tendencies in this direction.

After the client goes through the states of negativism, ambivalence, positive feelings, interest in the counselor, and concern for the group, how can the therapist recognize the client's picture of reality, the world with its flaws as well as enduring values, unless he himself knows where the weak spots are?

Aside from helping his clients to overcome disabling emotional handicaps or to find satisfying and socially acceptable pursuits, the counselor has a responsibility to work for conditions favorable to mental health. Work with student and adult groups within which the forces of cooperation and mutual respect can operate can be oriented in the direction of social maturity.

CHAPTER 4 *Student Personnel Work through Groups*

"Group guidance" was once a popular term in educational circles, and then for a time the major emphasis in student personnel work was on individual counseling. Various kinds of group services fell into disrepute because they were not used to serve the students but rather to facilitate administrative routine. The home room, which offers rich opportunities for student participation, became a convenient time for checking the roll, selling tickets to the school play, and collecting money for various enterprises.

The student council, in some cases, is merely a rubber stamp for the high school principal or college dean or president, an instrument for approving or implementing procedures originating with administrative officials of the school. If work with the student council is additional to a full teaching load, unrecognized as a legitimate part of the function of the school, the sponsor may regard it as a necessary evil. An indifferent sponsor will fail to develop its potentialities for democratic experience and for involving the students in real decisions and actions relating to the welfare of the students and the institution. Castka (40:297ff.) says many schools could use the time of one staff member exclusively for student governing activities.

Classes in vocational information, discussions of etiquette, and recreational projects are evidence that some schools attempt to meet the needs of their students. They offer opportunities for valuable learning experiences, provided that they meet felt needs of students, are oriented toward the students' own objectives, and permit the exercise of student responsibility and initiative.

The possibilities for learning through existing clubs and activities have been commonly neglected in schools and colleges. The learning process continues outside the classroom. The customary gap between academic and nonacademic activities is discussed by Irvine and Ogden (97:59).

The child goes to school in the entire community. For about thirty-five hours each week he learns in school. During his sixty-five waking hours, he is learning through his experiences at home, on the playground, in the streets and in stores of the community. If we ignore these learning experiences and let them take care of themselves we are splitting the child's personality.

Extra-class activities can be made a link between the classroom and life outside of the school. Sutherland [1] proposes that the term "one world" be applied to the campus. Why should we dichotomize: curriculum and extra-class activities; classwork and student life; campus and community?

Cantor (38:5) calls attention to our relative lack of success in producing responsible citizens. "I am stating that something is radically wrong with a system of education which purports to train for leadership in a democratic society, which intends to prepare children to live as dignified, responsible, cooperative citizens in American communities, and which fails miserably in carrying out its goals."

"Many schools are failing in the job of teaching citizenship," according to a group of Kansas educators at the close of a three-year study of citizenship education in six cities and a number of rural schools (127).

Many of the situations which arise in extra-class activities approximate the kinds of experiences which youth will have after they finish their education. They are more real to students than many classroom experiences. Citizenship concepts learned in social studies classes can become meaningful through participation in school government, according to Castka (40:297ff.). "Pupils must actually experience what they are learning, so that the principles expounded by instruction will be more readily communicated to the pupils. This can occur most effectively when the school situation corresponds closest to life experiences." He says student government offers this opportunity.

Attention to these problems is not lacking among school administrators. The *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, January, 1950, carried an article by Rahn (178:188ff.), "Participation: Key to Education for Effective Living." He stated the goals of education in a democracy:

"1. Competent self-direction with social responsibility

"2. Active participation in the concerns of the individual's expanding community"

Recommending student action on school problems, he suggests how their interests might then be extended to community problems. The proc-

[1] Sutherland, Robert L., "Some Aspects of the Culture of a Campus," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 350ff.

ess begins with extra-class activities in which the teachers help the students analyze situations, evaluate possible solutions, and acquaint themselves with relevant factors. The teacher does not tell the students what to do. Rahn says that in the schools where the practice is successful, the activities tend to be incorporated into the school program and the techniques of participation are extended into the classroom.

One of the requirements of all persons and especially the young adult, McClusky [2] says, is "a minimum integration within himself and with the adjacent culture in which he has his being. The emotional base of this integration is undoubtedly formed by the secure parental and sibling relationships which he enjoyed as a child. But the intellectual component of his integration comes largely out of his ability to find meaning in the midst of his world."

McClusky points out the ideological confusion in which we live and attributes it to the "conflict between an equalitarian ideal based on an appeal to the personal worth of man that is stirring the conscience of mankind and the inherited inequities of status and privilege which block its realization." Assistance is needed to achieve "an integrating core of values which will give significant direction to their [youth's] private and social world."

The lag in citizenship education is the responsibility of all educational agencies, including the home, but we shall attempt to point out how the school can use existing organizations to implement the development of citizenship skills and attitudes. We believe that real-life experience in group living and working together toward goals which are meaningful to students will contribute toward the understanding of human values. The integration of the extra-class program toward this end will require a revised definition of terms which have been incorrectly applied.

If we may hazard an opinion, we believe that failures in the past to achieve the desired results from group work are due principally to a vague and inadequate definition of democracy and democratic methods. In some cases attempts at student self-government have been undermined by benevolent paternalism, in which responsibilities ostensibly given to the students were hastily snatched away by the administration and faculty at the first sign of fumbling. The confusion in the minds of the students which results from a mixture of lip-service democracy and autocracy and the apathy that follows prevent real learning from taking place.

We are all in the same dilemma. Most of us have been reared under benevolent authority, exercised in varying degrees by home, church, and

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[2] McClusky, Howard Y., "The Changing Needs of Young Adults," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 48ff.

school. We are inclined to treat our children and our students as we have been treated. In positions of leadership, our attitudes of benevolent paternalism are often extended to members of the group.

Are we to continue in this fashion, producing citizens who leave high school and college unequipped to accept community responsibility, willing to let others direct their thinking and make their decisions for them, ultimately producing adults who will lead, teach, and rear youth in the same pattern?

A generalization made by Watson and others (254:120) suggests that "a goodly proportion" of American youth groups, up through the college ages, adjusts with evidence of unquestioning satisfaction to dominating adult leadership which is "benevolent" and friendly but *nevertheless initiative-destroying* and completely controlling most areas of potential freedom, including that of the formation of policy.

On the other hand, when the delegation of real power to the students is proposed, we meet with protests, "Are you going to let the kids run wild?" "The students need discipline and control." Too often the term democracy is used to mean *laissez faire* or license. Democratic leadership is a positive process. There is such a thing as self-discipline and self-control, and when it is encouraged to develop it is a much more powerful force than restraint from above. The development of an orderly school community through student self-government is one result of a positive program. If it can be made to work, the students will be prepared for constructive community living.

It must be remembered that students are people with all the human potentials. If we assume that boys and girls do not have the ability to take responsibility for their own actions, we are assigning them an immaturity which is insulting to them and which will delay or even arrest their maturity. We cannot usurp the prerogative of the student to think for himself, to voice his opinions, and to see his ideas in action and expect him to develop self-directiveness.

Throughout twenty-two years of working with high school and college students, the authors have observed adolescents and young adults discharge responsibilities with a degree of maturity which, in many cases, surpassed that of their elders. It is necessary to give attention not only to the revision of the curriculum but to the adoption of group methods which will provide experiences necessary to maturation. McClusky [3] says, "Older adults must deliberately assist in the induction of young people into full participation in society."

[3] McClusky, Howard Y., "The Changing Needs of Young Adults" in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 49ff.

We shall describe conditions and methods which permit the individual to develop his own powers of discrimination and self-directiveness and which help the group to fulfill its potentialities.

Without group work with the well-adjusted as a part of the student personnel program, the service becomes principally a matter of mopping up. Group work is the positive side of the student personnel program, through which morale is built, democratic skills perfected, cohesiveness and unity developed.

Reaching Educational Objectives

The objectives of the personnel program and the school can be served by opportunities for worthy group membership. Only through group activity can the student feel that he belongs to the school, learn to work harmoniously with others, develop a feeling of responsibility for the good of the group, and acquire leadership skills. Much information about the school, curriculum, and vocations can be given in groups. Absorption of information by the students takes place partially through discussion between students in groups. Self-realization is facilitated partially through the student's perceiving how others feel about him and partially through the student's experiencing success in the group.

Allport (6:117ff.) says that the psychologist (or personnel worker) can help the individual to commit himself to participate in some activity and help him to know his role in a complex, scientific society.

Although not primary objectives, many administrative ends are achieved through effective group work. Morale improves, discipline problems decrease, and constructive activity increases. A safe and orderly community can develop. Maier's comment (126:209) on the work of Lewin might be applied to administration.

With the proper use of group decisions, one can attain far greater control of a group of people than can be achieved by the use of fear. The writer's own work in industry has demonstrated that such problems as tardiness, quality of work and willingness to do unpleasant jobs, and cooperation can be handled far more effectively by having employees set their own goals than by having management enforce standards of work and deportment. The positive desire to be an acceptable member of a group is much better motivation than the fear of penalties. One of the effective motivation factors in influencing behavior is that of social pressure, as utilized under Lewin's type of democratic leadership. In attempting to obtain unanimous group solutions and in protecting minorities the leader is able to harness social pressure for constructive purposes.

We prefer to state it thus: It is possible for the group to control itself better than can any one member. The group will be most productive and will learn best when controls come from within. If the administrator,

teacher, or leader believes in the ability of the group to take responsibility, work out solutions to its problems, and govern itself, he will find these resources in the group.

Defining the Group

The term "group" is used very loosely to mean meetings of short duration, large assemblies of people, or organizations of people who work together for long periods of time. If we use the term to mean a close-knit unit which is able to work harmoniously and productively together, we presuppose a long-term association and the coexperiencing of activities which lead to success, mutual pride in accomplishment, and identification of the individual with the goals of the whole.

By this definition a high school assembly is not a group, but it may have some of the characteristics of a group. A class may or may not be a group, depending on how well the possibilities are used for developing mutual understanding and cohesiveness and on how much the class can make the class aims its own. A single meeting of civic-minded citizens may develop some of the characteristics of a group if they can agree on aims and make progress toward them. In the school are many subgroups, the basketball team, the pep squad, the newspaper staff, etc. Together they may form a community.

A group is composed of people with a common purpose who develop *esprit de corps* through the pursuit of the objectives of the whole. They trade ideas, arrive at a consensus, agree on action, and see it work. We do not start with a group. It is the result of common experience. If a school activity is to become a productive group, it must have its own objectives. They may be synonymous with the objectives of the administration, but they must be genuine objectives of the group, too.

This chapter will dwell on the conditions necessary for the development of a genuinely democratic group and on the roles of the leaders and the members. Subsequent chapters will be concerned with their use in existing school organizations and proposed additional organizations.

Group work can be classified into two general types: (1) group therapy for emotionally disturbed students, and (2) processes which help the working group to accomplish its objectives. Under the second category we find student government, home rooms, clubs and activities, retreats and camps, religious and service organizations, dormitory programs, leadership classes and workshops, recreation, how-to-study and occupations classes, self-exploratory, and information-gathering and discussion groups of many kinds.

Group processes can be applied to orientation activities and orientation classes, to working up assembly programs, and to the classroom. Most

of those described in succeeding pages work equally well with students and faculty members and can be used in faculty meetings and staff meetings.

Defining Democracy

When the conscientious teacher and sponsor begins to examine the administrative and classroom practices of his school he is often shocked to find that very little democracy prevails. Then he pursues the inquiry into what is democratic practice. The absolute dictator who regards the students as empty vessels into which he pours knowledge is the extreme, but there are shades of authoritarianism less easily detectable.

The complex questions which arise have frequently to do with practicality versus democracy. Is it democratic for the teacher or leader to select and issue materials? Is it democratic to ask questions which might direct the conversation in one direction and away from another subject? Is it democratic for the leader to venture any remarks for fear that by virtue of his position they might have more weight than the comments of a mere member? Is it democratic for the teacher of the leadership class to suggest that the members bring their problems to the class meeting? Should the whole conduct of the class be left to the students? Is it democratic for the leader to give information that might not be available to anybody else? Is it democratic for the home-room sponsor to suggest the problem of electing a home-room president or should he wait for the pupils to suggest it? Should he perhaps say instead, "What would you like to do in here this year?" Should the group make every decision on whether to buy a spool of thread, whether to put the Christmas tree in the right or left corner? Is it even legitimate for the leader to ask any one member to help him with a project or perform a service? Where must the line be drawn?

Some of the answers to these questions, we believe, are found in the studies of Lewin, Lippitt, White, and Bradford. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (116:298ff.) compared the behavior and productivity of groups led by democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leaders. Bradford and Lippitt (31) distinguished between the benevolent autocrat and the hard-boiled autocrat.

Lewin, Lippitt, and White found that:

1. Hostility was 30 times as frequent in the autocratic as in the democratic groups. Aggression (including both hostility and joking hostility) was eight times as frequent. Much of this aggression was directed toward two successive scapegoats within the group. Members of one group rebelled against the autocratic leader; others became submissive and dependent.

2. Nineteen out of twenty boys preferred the democratic leader to the autocratic leader.

3. The groups having the democratic leadership could go ahead with purposeful activity in the absence of the leader, while the group having an autocratic leader could not.

4. Members of the autocratically led group were observed to talk about themselves more than twice as often as members of the democratically led group.

5. Members of the democratically led group worked harder, produced more, and used more originality than those in the other groups.

6. Less productivity and more horseplay were noted in the laissez-faire groups than in democratic groups.

7. When apathetic, submissive groups were removed from autocratic leadership, the members gave vent to aggression, indicating that while not expressed, the hostile feelings had been accumulating beneath surface conformity.

Bradford and Lippitt observed that while workers under benevolent autocrats were not openly rebellious, they regressed to a childlike level of dependency and displayed inability to exercise responsibility. Few ideas were developed to improve work techniques.

The Hard-boiled Autocrat. The hard-boiled autocrat gives orders, assigns tasks, makes decisions without consulting the members of his group, and checks up constantly to see if the work is being done. He believes that the only way to get conscientious performance is to expect and secure discipline and immediate acceptance of all orders. He is very conscious of his position and authority and believes that others cannot be trusted very long on their initiative. Characteristics of this group are rebellion, hostility, and aggressiveness.

The Benevolent Autocrat. Many people who consider themselves genuinely democratic are really benevolent autocrats. The benevolent autocrat is interested in his employees, students, family, club, etc. He wants to see them happy, praises them as much as he criticizes them, is seldom harsh or severe. He is reluctant to give authority or even responsibility to anyone. If he assigns tasks, he checks up to see if they are done "right" and he may take back upon himself tasks which he has given to someone else.

Benevolent autocrats can be recognized among club presidents, church leaders, teachers, and administrators who find themselves doing more than their share of the work of their respective projects. They have no real confidence in the ability of the members of their groups to make decisions or even to carry them out. They are inclined to withhold information from the groups, make independent decisions, or manipulate the groups so that they make the decisions which have already been approved by the leaders.

The benevolent autocrat urges the members of his group to bring their problems to him and is interested in all details of their work. Actually

he trades benevolence for loyalty. The crux of his autocracy lies in the technique by which he secures dependence upon himself. He says, with a pat on the back, "That's the way I like it . . . I am glad you did it that way . . . that's the way I want it done," or "That isn't the way I told you to do it." In this way he dominates the members of his group by making himself the source of all standards. Any failure to live up to these standards he receives with hurt surprise and intense anger as personal disloyalty. He is very protecting and makes the group members further indebted to him thereby.

The benevolent autocrat may reassure himself and his group that "We want to be democratic about this," "This is a democratic organization," "We want to find out what everybody wants to do." He may appoint committees to investigate or sample public opinion, but in the final analysis he usually interprets the information as favorable to his own point of view, or he may disregard the information. He believes he can decide what is best for the group better than the members can. He is an expert in selling his ideas to the group and in getting their cooperation through personal loyalty. Characteristics of this type of group are submissiveness, lack of initiative, conformity, and apathy.

The Laissez-faire Leader. The laissez-faire concept of leadership is also sometimes confused with democracy. The laissez-faire leader may make material available or give information if he is asked for it, but he seldom offers a suggestion, raises issues, clarifies group processes, or calls for an evaluation of progress. He actually participates less than other members. He has no clear-cut idea of group goals and he does not help the group define them. He does not reflect the feelings of the group or the members or help them to crystallize their ideas. He is one extreme and the hard-boiled autocrat is the other.

Characteristics of the laissez-faire group are aimless activity, wandering attention, and lack of progress. Responsibilities are seldom clearly defined. A discussion conducted by a laissez-faire leader is likely to digress into many irrelevancies and arrive at no definite conclusions or actions.

The laissez-faire personality may be one who has no confidence in his ability to handle an interpersonal relationship or play the role of leader. As a supervisor, he may bury himself in paper work and stay away from those he is supervising. He may also be one who believes to be a "good fellow" means license. He is unwilling to destroy the cordiality of an interpersonal relation and thus is unable to be aggressive in any interpersonal relation.

The Democratic Leader. The democratic leader really believes in the ability of the group members to explore possibilities, gather information, and make a decision. He encourages them to express their opinions and to

offer suggestions. The group shares with him the assignment of tasks. If a responsibility is undertaken by a group (or a member), he does not interfere with their discharge of their obligation or take over their responsibilities. If he believes a group decision is wrong, he presents his case but abides by the consensus.

When a decision must be made by him, he helps the group to understand clearly the basis of his decision. He is careful to cultivate a feeling of group responsibility for the success of the work and to recognize their share in the credit for its success. He is concerned that each person clearly understand his role and have opportunities for success in it. He makes his services and knowledge available to the group.

Evaluation is done by the group. He is careful not to express praise or criticism in terms of his own preferences.

Characteristics of this group are independent thought, consideration for varying points of view, respect for the opinions and work of every member, progress toward goals, and action following group decisions.

Basic Concepts of Democratic Leadership

If group experience is to contribute to the development of the individual and the general welfare of the school, certain conditions must be present. As in the counseling interview, the individual member must feel that his statement will receive a fair hearing and that he is capable of making a contribution to the group. When the leader or teacher understands the need of every member to be accepted by his associates, he has taken a big step toward effective leadership. Every individual has a mental picture of himself and usually the best results can be obtained by helping the individual to preserve a favorable self-portrait. This does not mean that praise is given when it is unwarranted—only that attention is given to each opinion and each contribution.

In other words, *there must be mutual respect* among the members and between the members and the leader. This need not be interpreted to mean there must be unanimity of thought. Divergent opinions are to be expected. They are signs of a healthy democratic condition. But respect must be present for the opinion with which one disagrees. The leader or teacher helps to establish the condition of mutual respect.

Every individual is regarded as possessing intrinsic dignity and worth. This belief is a part of our religious-democratic heritage. We find many references to this basic, persistent value in our Judaeo-Christian literature, "Love thy neighbor as thyself," "Love one another," "Love thine enemies." Our national constitution recognizes the rights of man. We believe in the right of the individual to certain traditional privileges. We publicly assert our belief in the core of potential productivity and good

in every individual. The group cannot thrive unless this principle operates between its members.

Active participation by every member is an ideal toward which the group works. When the member helps to make decisions and contributes his ideas aloud, his mind becomes active on the problems of the group, and original ideas are born. The talents of members can be used to the best advantage. Participation by every member enriches the group.

Participation is a necessary condition for learning. Through participation the individual learns what works and will have this learning to apply on future projects. We learn not only through hearing and seeing, but through thinking, feeling, and doing.

Only through active participation can the individual develop a feeling of belongingness and a feeling of responsibility for the good of the group. On this subject Don Phillips (170) says, "In the final analysis we are loyal to that which we create or improve." Mutual concern, he says, is a unifying bond. The good leader shares responsibility and authority. He does not try to do everything for the group by himself. We cannot share in the satisfaction of group success unless we are really a part of the whole process. Repeated success experiences reduce self-interest and produce identification with the group.

The retiring member has a contribution to make and he should be encouraged by the leader. Phillips (170) says, "In a democracy how long can we afford to ignore the potential contributions of the less vocal?" All members do not need to participate in the same way, but all should participate in some way.

The leader must not dominate the group. While we declare our belief in the democratic processes, we often assume that the leader is more able and stronger than the followers. We expect him to assert his authority, to decide what the group should do and see that they do it. We put our faith in a majority vote, which may be a result of the leader's charm or a product of emotional appeal. The leader is regarded by some as the manipulator of motivations and members to achieve desirable ends. Such a definition of leadership is insulting to the members of the group.

When the leader or sponsor is a manipulator, the members fail to become involved, to develop insights as they would in a truly cooperative endeavor. They will not be oriented toward the objectives, because the objectives are those of the leader and not of the group. Goals may be reached, loyalty to the leader may develop, but there will be little carry-over by the members into other situations which require them to take responsibility.

An objection frequently voiced to democratic methods is that they are too slow. It is true that democratic procedures are time-consuming. One

person can make a decision in a fraction of the time that it requires a group to discuss a question thoroughly and weigh all the evidence.

The efficiently handled meeting is sometimes conceived as one where numerous motions are passed with a minimum of discussion. The leader can accomplish this objective by strategy. However, little time is actually saved by forcing a decision on a group because of the aftermath of dissatisfaction, lag in cooperation, and lack of understanding. The leader who makes the decision for the group will find that he has the responsibility for carrying it out. He cannot be sure he is moving in the direction of group goals. When all the members are heard and make up their own minds on the basis of fact, they will assume the responsibility for carrying out the program. It becomes "their" baby, not the leader's.

Leadership can be conceived, according to Withall (266), as

. . . a function which enables individuals to fulfill more effectively their own and the group needs and to contribute more fully to the achievement of the goals which have been identified . . . a method of helping individuals to identify their own purposes as well as the purposes of the group and to visualize more adequately the action possibilities for themselves and their co-workers.

The democratic leader must be sufficiently permissive to allow mistakes to be made by the members. Some leaders are so concerned for the reputation of the group and so personalized in their attitudes toward the success of the group that they are afraid to give the members full information or to allow them to make what appears to be a dubious decision. If the group cannot make its own decisions, then who is wise and strong enough to decide for them?

The majority is not always right, but an unwise decision does not necessarily persist forever. Mistakes can be understood and repaired. People learn by making mistakes. The right of the group and of its members even to make mistakes is recognized by the democratic leader.

The New York City Board of Education publication *The High School Student and His General Organization* (27) contains this statement, "Pupils should be permitted to make mistakes where they can learn from them and where these mistakes do not threaten to become too costly." While a reservation is necessary (we cannot learn everything by experience), still the latitude for mistakes can be pretty wide. The tendency is in the direction of restricting for fear of a mistake instead of toward too much liberty.

The leader derives his authority from the group. He holds his position by the consent of the governed. Even the teacher or sponsor who has not been chosen by the group has no real authority except that which the group gives him.

The ultimate answer to what democratic leadership is lies in the relationship between the leader and the group, in the way they feel about each other. If the feeling is permissive and accepting, the processes will probably be of a democratic nature.

Leadership in any group may begin with some degree of authority. The leader who calls a meeting and opens a meeting is exercising authority. The sponsor who asks the group if they wish to elect a president or a representative to the student governing body is exercising authority.

However, the democratic group can take increasing responsibility away from the leader until at length the leader's role is indistinguishable from that of any other member in the group except for mechanics of operation.

The group defines its own goals and the leader must be committed to them. He cannot set goals for the group, decide alone what is good for the group or how to achieve it.

The good leader makes himself unnecessary to the group, according to Powell (171:140). *While the group is working toward independence, the leader is a very active member, but he gradually shifts responsibility to the group.*

Torrance (234) found that, during 20 sessions of class in which democratic group methods were employed, students began spontaneously to step into the coordinator role, also evaluator-critic, harmonizer, compromiser, but not into the role of procedural technician. They look to the instructor for this.

The leader must be a member of the group. The attempt to be democratic sometimes causes the leader to withdraw so completely from membership in the group that discussion flounders and conclusions are never reached. The leader who adopts the ideal of democracy does not relinquish his responsibility to clarify points of agreement and disagreement, provide for the introduction of facts into the discussion, review the objectives of the group and their progress toward them. He has a role in the group as well as every other member. He should offer his best talent along with other members.

The leader or teacher usually has information that other members of the group have not yet acquired. Possibly he has spent more time in thought on the subject and he may be more concerned that the group should apply itself profitably to the question and make progress toward conclusions. Should he play a laissez-faire role, or is democracy still served if he contributes his knowledge, prevents the few from dominating, acts to keep the group from wandering aimlessly, and encourages the retiring member? Meiklejohn (171:141) says, "Nothing is more helpless, more inept, more sure to go astray, than a group of people meeting for a

common purpose but with no arrangement for the focusing of the purpose. . . ."

There must be communication between the leader and the members. Opportunity for discussion may not be sufficient for complete communication between leader and member, particularly if the group is large. Questionnaires for sampling opinion and for evaluating the effectiveness of the meetings or the work of the group may be used. Bulletins and reports issued by the leader help to keep the members informed.

If an executive board meets separately from the general membership, they should be sure that they know the sentiments of the membership on the questions they discuss and that they keep the members acquainted with their actions and reasons for them. It is not the function of the board to make decisions for the membership, but to execute the will of the membership. They are liaison bodies between the membership and the national organization or between the membership and the leaders. The actions of leaders and executive bodies should be periodically reviewed by the membership. Their decisions and actions should be principally concerned with how to carry out the projects agreed on by the whole membership.

Access to full information is a necessary condition to democratic group action. Otherwise, the time of the group will be consumed by an exchange of prejudices, and unwise decisions will be made. The free expression of opinion is in no way hindered by injecting factual information into discussions, providing that the fact finder does not monopolize the discussion. A fact-finding committee to report to the group, distribution of printed information to the members in advance of the meeting, resource consultants who prepare in advance on the subject for discussion and who give information informally when it helps discussion are among the devices to ensure that facts will be available. Access to more than one point of view is inherent in this condition.

Objectivity of information is desirable, but objective truth must be admitted as well as figures, statistics, and material evidence. We are inclined to give a good deal of weight to numerical data, how many people belong to this organization, how much money is spent for recreation, how many column inches of newspaper publicity are given the school, how many goals are scored by the team. We need to remind ourselves that abstractions can also be true and relevant. Attitudes, emotions, thoughts, enter into discussions. Truths relating to freedom, responsibility, progress, beauty, human worth, the good life are also important.

The group should have a real purpose and the members should agree on what it is. Occasionally a school group will outlive its original purpose and limp on with no apparent reason for existence. Some groups appear

to exist for the sole purpose of raising money. Some duplicate the efforts of other groups. Lagging interest and spasmodic participation may be symptoms of lack of well-defined purpose.

If the organization has no real purpose, perhaps it should be liquidated. A periodic review of the goals and progress toward them would be wholesome. The leader or sponsor should not feel responsible for perpetuating an organization which has no justification.

A questionnaire might be developed by the student governing body to help organizations evaluate themselves with regard to purposes, achievements, percentage of membership who participate, attendance, and service to the school.

Flexibility in program and discussion is essential. The democratic leader does not begin with a preconceived idea of how either a discussion or a long-term program will develop. Slavish adherence to any plan will stifle initiative and fail to make use of the inexhaustible resources of the group. The time to attack a problem is when interest and enthusiasm are concentrated on it. They may be generated at an earlier or a later time than the leaders and planners can predict. The time to introduce materials is when they are relevant, rather than according to an inflexible outline. No one can anticipate how outside events will produce problems which the group may want to attack or information which may change the thinking of the group. There should be a plan which all share in making, but it should be amenable to change.

The leader of a church group who hoped the members would decide to study world problems was somewhat chagrined when they decided to attack the question of a city dump. After disposing of that question they got around to international affairs.

The sponsor of a home room may think that the members should study etiquette or *Robert's Rules of Order* or how to be a good citizen. It cannot be done successfully unless the group makes the idea its own and sets its own goals.

Fenety (69:18ff.) describes a tenth-grade home-room project which grew out of the interests of a member. The group of 16 boys and 14 girls of average mentality between the ages of fourteen and sixteen years had failed to make any constructive use of the home-room period. Restlessness and staring at the clock indicated boredom.

The comment of one member on an article about juvenile delinquency aroused the interest of others. They were reluctant to leave the discussion when the bell rang. Several members brought notes on juvenile delinquency to the next home-room period. The sponsor organized small discussion groups, which reported back to the class the subjects they wanted to study and how they planned to go about it. Each group decided to

study a different phase of juvenile delinquency. The principal dropped in during a later meeting and invited the home room to give a report to the parent-teacher association.

At the close of this project, the students made lists of other subjects they wanted to pursue. A study of Christmas in other lands led to correspondence with students in other nations.

This home room became a part of the student governing association, after the student council sent representatives to discuss school problems with the home room and to report the results of their council meetings.

Fenety reports evidences of success:

1. Other teachers noticed favorable changes in the students.
2. Some of the students became the best leaders in the school.
3. The development of social skills, poise, and ability to make friends was observed.
4. The home room headed the list of organizations in school spirit.
5. A tolerant attitude was developed toward members of other races.
6. Progress was made in ability to work together and in respect to each other.

Ten other teachers in the same school adopted the plan at mid-term, and the principal recommended it to other home-room sponsors. Fenety says that the students must initiate interest if the project is to be fruitful. Fenety's experience illustrates how a successful group project grew out of student interest and initiative with the help of a sympathetic faculty member.

Techniques of Leadership

Leaders are eager to learn techniques, tricks of the trade. These are important, but they are secondary to the basic concepts of democratic leadership. Any approach toward the solution of group problems and the handling of group business must be based upon an understanding of the motivations of human beings.

Who Leads. The students should choose their own leaders for clubs, home rooms, student council, etc., but the teacher or sponsor should know how to conduct a democratic discussion. Rahn (178:188ff.) suggests that democratic methods be introduced first in faculty meetings and then extended to student groups and classes. The sponsor would probably preside over the first sessions in the fall of the home room, of classes in leadership, and of newly organized activities and over various other meetings which would serve as examples of democratic leadership for students.

He would doubtless confer with student officers concerning group problems and have opportunities to offer suggestions as to techniques and methods. After student leaders become trained in democratic methods, upper-class leaders might be asked to conduct the meetings of new

students until they choose their own leaders. After a chairman or president is chosen, the group may want to rotate discussion leadership among other members.

The following suggestions will be given as if the sponsor were going to use them himself. There is no reason why they cannot also be effective in the classroom.

The first step in building group unity is to help the members to know each other. Each member can be asked to introduce himself and tell something about himself, or each one can be asked to introduce his neighbor and tell something about him. In the latter case, time would be given for each one to get acquainted with the person next to him. Members of a long-established group would, of course, already be acquainted, but there would be many occasions where this preliminary step is necessary, as in the case of the first-year home room.

In some cases the next step is to introduce the question or subject for the consideration of the group, "How do you want to use this time?" "What are some things we might all be interested in?"

If it is a home-room situation where the students know they are expected to elect officers and representatives to a central governing body, the students may propose that election processes begin. If the idea is new in the school, the teacher or sponsor can orient them to the proposed organization. The sponsor might call upon a student leader to speak briefly on the place of the home room in the governmental structure, to be followed by free group discussions.

If there are limits to the activities of the group, the sponsor can describe the limits. If the meeting is called to organize a departmental club, it is assumed that the members are there because they are interested in Spanish or home economics or science, the subject to which the club is related.

During the first session of a leadership class, the instructor might say that the members are free to bring the problems of the organization before the class. Since the assumption is that they want to learn about leadership, the instructor will make materials on the subject available.

If the members indicate that they are not ready to elect a chairman, choose a project, or discuss a subject, the leader should permit them to pursue the matters which they feel are pertinent.

A beginning can be made by asking each member to submit a list of subjects or problems which he would like to discuss. The list can be presented to the group and they can decide which to attack first and how they wish to gather information on the items.

Role of the Discussion Leader. Once the discussion has started, the leader encourages the members to take as much responsibility as they are willing to take.

John Powell (171:140) quotes Mrs. Helen Everitt Meiklejohn: "Since the aim is to develop the independent judgment of the students and their capacity for criticism, the leader must play a watchful though secondary role. Like a good host at a dinner party, he is ready to plunge in if the conversation goes too badly. As a good host, too, he encourages his shy guest and politely though firmly discourages the monopolist."

He should leave the meeting with the feeling that everyone has had a chance to "shine." He cannot force the shy member to speak, but he can be alert to any small sign of his desire to participate. Sometimes retiring members can distribute materials or take notes for the group, but this is not always regarded as a favor. The shy one may feel that such an assignment is evidence that the leader believes that he is not capable of performing more important tasks, or it may be painful to him to receive any attention. It is up to the leader to *sense how the members feel* and to choose a procedure to suit the group and the situation. Perhaps he cannot draw everyone into the group at the first meeting, but he may see an opportunity to involve the shy member in committee work, poster making, or some other part of the group program. This function of the leader is only one illustration of the principle that a formula will not ensure good leadership. There is no substitute for the necessary sensitivity of the leader to the needs and desires of the members of his group.

Sometimes discussion lags and the leader feels that something must be done to pep it up. Freedom in discussion is a new idea to some. The leader may have to wait while the group "spins its wheels" a bit. He may find that if he waits for the group members to reflect, they will find a new approach. He could ask if the question has been thoroughly explored, if the members feel it is time to adjourn. He could summarize progress and discussion, issues raised, and points of agreement or he could ask a member to do it.

When people start to repeat themselves or when they seem to have exhausted the subject, he can ask the group, "Where are we?" and let the group summarize. Stensland (218) says the group should stop sometimes in its journey to talk about the past miles and look at the road map. The leader can ask the group if they are ready to take action and he can point out alternatives. He can say, "We have talked about this for quite a while. Maybe we are ready to decide what to do next," or "Let us see if we have considered all the angles."

The leader refers to group feelings and desires. Instead of asking himself, "What shall I do?" he asks the group, "What shall we do next?" "What do you want to do?" "How shall we divide the work?"

Sometimes the group votes to attempt a project, but few volunteer to do the work. The leader will get little response if he urges, dictates, or

moralizes. Possibly the leader should ask, "Would you like to rescind this last motion?"

A Red Cross field director found herself in this position after a group discussion of birthday parties for hospitalized veterans. She reviewed the situation and asked, "Shall we give only half as many birthday parties as we decided, or should we reconsider the whole question? Perhaps we should give the project up entirely." The question was not asked sarcastically or resentfully. The tone of voice implied that she merely wished to find out the true feelings of the group. The result was a full quota of volunteers.

When a point is not clear the leader should avoid, if possible, embarrassing the speaker. He can say, "Would you like to explain this further?" "I am not sure that we understand each other." If a speaker makes a statement which is not clear or which he cannot support, the leader should not put him on the spot. The question, "What makes you think so?" might put the speaker on the defensive or inject emotion into the discussion.

Sometimes one member dominates the discussion. The good leader does not allow this to happen. He can say, "Excuse me. May I interrupt? We have spent a good deal of time on this point. We have fifteen minutes left," or "We want to be sure that we cover as many angles as possible and that every member has a chance to say what he thinks. This is what has been said. . . . Where do we go from here?" Or he can say, "I see what you mean, Mr. Verbal. Your neighbor, Mr. Shy, has his hand up. Let us see whether or not he agrees with you." Or, "Let us see if we understand your point. Now, what do the rest of the members think?"

When emotions run high, the leader can sometimes avoid a crisis by reflecting the feelings of the belligerents. He can say, "That makes you angry," or "You feel disgusted," or "You think we do not understand your point of view." If the leader finds the phrase which correctly describes the feeling of the member, the member may calm down and become reasonable again. This technique may also be used in the case of other expressions of emotion. Feelings of elation, excitement, approval, appreciation, good will, frustration, bewilderment, if recognized by the leader and correctly defined, can be turned into constructive channels. Criticism of the leader should be defined in the same way.

Emotion, as we have pointed out in relation to other student personnel services, is an important factor in the achievement of any purpose. It can hinder or contribute to progress. When people feel understood and understand themselves, they are in a more favorable position to take action and to think clearly on a problem. If the leader makes a moral judgment as to whether a member's statement is right or wrong, he puts the member on the defensive and interferes with clear thinking. He should not

get on one side or the other. The leader's function is to hold a mirror up to the group to show them where they are and how they arrived at their positions.

Mursell (154) says, "The leader or teacher can be the harmonizer, compromiser, encourager, observer, orienter, initiator, energizer, information giver, commentator who interprets subject content or attitudes."

In some cases, the leader may want to appoint an observer or recorder to report the reactions of the members to each other, the points of disagreement and agreement, the progress made, and the amount of participation by the members. If he does appoint an observer, the leader should make the function clear to him and should not neglect to use him but call for a report in time for the group to continue discussion after hearing the report. In this way, the group can make use of his observations to improve their discussion.

The use of the observer lessens the possibility of domination by the leader and spreads out the possibility for participation. The observer has more time than the leader to record the interchange of opinions. He can reflect group feelings, but the leader can respond to an individual's emotion without interrupting to call on the observer. Either the leader or the observer reports back to the group but neither should evaluate the group. That is the privilege of the whole membership.

The leader should give the group members a chance near the close of each meeting to voice or write their evaluation of the meeting. He can ask the members how they want to evaluate it, on what points, and in what form.

If the group is large, there will not be time for everybody to be heard, and shy people will be discouraged from speaking. The meek voice which is lost in a crowd of sixty may be readily heard in an intimate conversation among eight or ten people. In order to give everyone an opportunity to discuss, the leader can divide the membership into several small groups, sometimes called "buzz groups." Having the members count off by sixes or sevens (or whatever number will divide the members into small groups) and grouping all number ones together, all twos, etc., will help to break up cliques and vary responses within each group. Subgroup discussions can often be carried on in the same room at the same time. Each small group should elect its own leader and a reporter to report conclusions to the general meeting. The small-group leader has the same responsibilities for defining feelings and promoting a permissive atmosphere as have been described as the general leader's role.

The specific topic of discussion should be made clear before the group is subdivided. It should not be too general. The amount of time allowed for discussion in the subgroups should be announced. The subgroups

should not be asked to take up more than one question at a time. Some leaders ask for a report to the general meeting from each group at a half-way point during the discussion, in order that the members of each group can hear what has happened in their own group and what has happened in other groups. If time is short, each recorder can be asked to report only the two or three ideas which his group agrees are best, but he should record all ideas. The subgroup reports help the members to evaluate the efficiency with which the time has been used, to clarify their thinking, and to point their effort toward a reasonable conclusion. No one reporter should be permitted to take more than a reasonable share of the time. When the allotted time has passed, the leader of the general meeting reconvenes the meeting, asks for subgroup reports, summarizes the reports, asks the group if their sentiments have been accurately reported and whether the group wishes to take action on them. If the group is not ready for action, he asks what they want to do next.

Some advantages of the buzz-group technique listed by Phillips (170) are that ideas and their wording are screened before reaching the floor; there is a minimum chance of involving personalities when the reporter shares in his group's conclusions, and the danger of becoming involved in established personality conflicts can be reduced. Opinions can be organized, condensed, and reported concisely. Repetition can be reduced.

Phillips describes several examples of the successful use of the small-group technique. "In twenty minutes, 650 4-H members in a crowded auditorium without changing seats responded with many practical action suggestions for local clubs." In four minutes 250 representatives attending Michigan's Annual Adult Education Conference shared in the discussion by preparing questions "for our panel members which you feel would be of greatest interest to you and to the majority of the group."

Both issues and facts enter into a group discussion. It is the responsibility of the leader to state the issues and to distinguish between issues and facts. There is nothing to be gained from an argument about a fact. If time is being wasted on what UNESCO means, whether the basketball tournament did or did not lose money, or whether or not the school constitution gives the student council power to charter school organizations, the leader's job is to point out that information is lacking. He might say, "Maybe we are in trouble because we haven't all the facts." Or he asks, "How can we get this information?"

Some members of the group may be informed. Some may volunteer to make telephone calls to informed people or to go to the library or bring records or relevant literature to the next meeting.

The leader may know of a film which would give information on the subject of interest to the group. He can say, "Would you like to see a

film on this subject?" He may describe the film briefly or review other materials which might be used by the group. If the leader or a committee or a member is authorized by the group to select materials, he may use his own judgment without usurping the right of the group.

The group may agree to have several members study various aspects of the subject and inject information when it is needed during the next discussion.

The group may wish to bring in an authority on the subject they are discussing. A student group considering a new constitution for the student body or a community group studying pending state or national legislation might want to invite a lawyer or teacher from the nearest law school to their meeting. A committee discussing a proposed student-union building might like to consult with an architect or the director of a successful student-union program.

The traditional method of making use of such talent is to have the expert speak to the group. However, group discussions where the experts were used as resource consultants have proved very successful. The members of the group sometimes feel that it is not fair to invite a busy and highly respected authority to participate as a resource consultant. They feel embarrassed to give him such a small share in the group. They feel they should sit at his feet and listen. However, the information he has to give "sinks in" and is translated into action most effectively if it is given when the group is ready for it and when they can discuss and ask questions.

If there is time, lectures can be combined with discussion where the expert participates as a member of the group. During the 1950 Rocky Mountain Hazen Conference, the lectures of Dr. Edwin Ewart Aubrey (professor of religious thought, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia) and Dr. Daniel Prescott (professor of education and director of Institute for Child Study, University of Maryland, College Park, Md.) were followed by discussion in small groups. The speakers attended the small-group discussions where they participated as members, speaking only when they were consulted by the group.

The expert often realizes that the best use is made of his time and knowledge when the group members are given time to digest his contribution, to state the ideas in their own words, and to relate them to their own experiences (when the group is involved in the learning process). The Reverend Mr. Shirley E. Greene (agricultural relations secretary, Council for Social Action, Congregational Christian Churches) has had many such experiences in small-group discussions. He says that the results are so far-reaching in terms of understanding and action that he feels his time is well spent with a small group, even though they number only ten or twelve and he may participate only briefly in the discussion.

The best results are obtained when the group chooses the resource consultants and knows the role they are to play in the group discussion and when the resource consultants understand their role and the nature of the group structure. If the leader is delegated to choose the experts, he should report his movements to the group. The resource consultant can offer information spontaneously where it fits into the conversation. If he does not, and if the group fails to consult him, the leader can call upon him. A question such as "Does our school need a new constitution?" might bring in both facts and issues. As Per Stensland (218) points out, "In the course of a discussion . . . usually there is not just one issue, but a whole battery of issues." He explains that some issues do not mean anything to the group. The leader *and the members* must decide which issues are real and which are insignificant. Also, the group must decide which issues they can do something about.

Facts must be meaningful to people before they can be applied to action. They must be related to the needs and experiences of the people. Procedures for making facts meaningful were studied in connection with the buying habits of housewives (99:347). The nutritional qualities of cheaper cuts of meat and of meats usually regarded as inferior were presented to two groups of housewives. The lecture method was used for one group, while the other was permitted to discuss the facts. Follow-up revealed that the discussion method had produced more change in choosing meats than the lecture method.

Kurt Lewin (114:330*ff.*) discusses individual instruction versus group decision as they effected changes in methods of child care. Four weeks after participating in a group decision regarding infant diet, every mother was following the prescribed diet. Less than 50 per cent of the mothers who received instructions had adopted the prescribed diet after four weeks had elapsed.

The leader can help the group to *realize the limitations* of its projects or discussions. Some groups meet with the understanding that their discussions will be limited only by a consensus of the group. In other words, they can discuss anything which is of interest to the majority of the group, from how to behave on a date to the causes of war. Other groups understand when they meet that their activities will be limited.

Students in an American history class can enjoy the freedom to voice opinions and pursue one subject instead of another only as long as they relate to American history. They know when they go into the class that it is limited to that subject. Digressions would be permitted at times, but the major part of discussion would be on the subject. Student council members would confine their discussions principally to matters relating to student government and welfare of the student body. The leader should

permit as much freedom of discussion and decision as possible within the avowed limits of the group.

A *lack of cooperation* among members may plague the leader. He will want to help the group investigate the cause and analyze the situation. The root of the trouble may be that the leaders have taken the responsibility away from the group. An effort can be made to give every member a role in the group and to involve more of the members in decision making.

The leaders of certain college organizations found that while their social events were heartily enjoyed by a majority of the members, the same few did all the work of planning, decorating, issuing invitations, and cleaning up. The revolutionary question of whether to *have* any more parties was introduced at a meeting and considered in buzz groups. Following a decision to have a dance, the groups discussed and decided on every question relating to the dance, possible dates, orchestras, places, and division of work. Almost every member performed some task in preparation for the party. It was so successful that the same procedure was followed when the group decided to give a tea. After two satisfying ventures, the members felt so much personal reward from their efforts that they continued the habit of sharing the decision making and the work.

The group decision might be to let part of its membership wait until another time to help. All would not be obliged to do exactly the same thing at the same time, but there should be some projects on which all work and all should help make the major decisions.

Problems of Leadership

Delegating Authority with Responsibility. Obviously every detail of a project cannot be referred to the group for a vote, particularly if the group is large. Nor would this practice be desirable. It would be time-consuming and stifling to individual initiative. The attention of the large group should be given to policy making. After the group has made a decision, officials and committees should be given authority as well as responsibility for carrying out the wishes of the majority in terms of the agreed policies.

If a committee is chosen to decorate for a dance, the total group might choose a theme for the decorations, but the committee should be permitted to use its own judgment on details. Suppose a member of the committee has an inspiration to construct an unusual poster or lattice bower or orchestra pit for the dance. If his idea is in harmony with the general plans, he should be permitted to use his initiative without referral to a vote of the membership.

If a committee is given the responsibility to report on a given subject, the members should be given sufficient time to investigate, choose relevant data, and report freely to the membership. Neither the officers nor the

general membership should deny respect for individual judgment and integrity.

Accepting the New Method. The traditional idea of leadership is that the leader should tell the group what to do and see that they do it. The suggestion that the leader should bring out the opinions and desires of the group, remain in the background, and make no moral judgments and few recommendations is so shocking to some leaders that they cannot accept the idea. Upon reviewing such ideas for leadership, one sorority president gasped, "This idea of leadership just slays me!" We can expect this reaction. Only repeated use can "sell" the leader on the foregoing practices.

Complexity of Group Morale. The problem of group morale is not a simple one. While it is true that hostility is often produced by autocratic methods, still, when a leader tries to introduce democratic methods among members who have always been governed by autocratic teachers, parents, and group leaders, he will also find hostility. People who have become comfortably accustomed to having decisions made for them are resentful when they are asked to take responsibility for thinking out problems and acting for the good of the group.

John Walker Powell (171:141) quotes Meiklejohn:

The basis of human preference for such democracy is not that it eases the burden of government. No free institutions do that. They make far heavier demands on the minds and characters of both rulers and ruled than do the processes of aristocracy. But the essential point is that, just as autocracy in the State denies the human purposes which it is established to further, *so do paternalism and dogmatism and "instruction" in teaching.* The teacher in a democracy must make heavy, severe, rigorous demands upon his students; but it must be clear, to them as well as to him, that these demands come not from him, but from themselves—from the enterprise which, together with him, they have freely chosen to follow.

Cantor (38:122*ff.*) describes the resistance and ambivalence expressed by his students when he insisted that they take responsibility for developing and expressing their own opinions. He records such expressions as: "I find the class one of confusion, embarrassment, and bewilderment"; "All that I've learned could be put in the left eyeball of a cat"; "What's wrong in your telling us just what the definition of a criminal and crime is?"

He reports very positive statements made by the same students late in the semester: "It's pretty refreshing to feel that I am now the captain of my soul"; "This course forces me to use my reasoning and logic which to date was stagnant"; "I'm trying to really live in light of what I'm learning about personality development and it's not a simple matter" (38:217,

218, 237). He also includes some transcribed remarks which indicated that the students were questioning, evaluating, and analyzing the subject matter, that they were thinking, reasoning, and developing their own opinions.

Margaret Barron and Gilbert Krulee (16:10*ff.*) describe the pattern of group growth.

Group growth seemed to follow a definite pattern: initial resistance to accepting responsibility and to the method of operation, gradual understanding and acceptance of the method of operation, and finally a period of well-organized and productive meetings. It seems probable that the resistance was the result of demands which the methods used placed on the individuals. The methods were unfamiliar, they were at variance with the expectations of many of the delegates, and they required rather significant behavioral changes in many members before a cooperative and responsible group could develop. This period of resistance helped to focus the attention of the members on their behavior as it contributed to or hindered the functioning of the group.

Paul Torrance (235) records the complaint of one of his students regarding an early class period in which the responsibility was given to the students: "I felt we wasted a lot of time and still didn't arrive at too good a definition of adjustment. . . . I would prefer that an authority on the subject (the present instructor will do nicely) present much more material to us. I find much of the class discussion petty and insignificant." A later statement from the same student was: "The course was stimulating and I will always be glad I took it—and perhaps kick myself for not putting my all into it. We wanted to learn, but had to accept too much responsibility."

One student in a class conducted according to these previous suggestions rated the instructor zero on each of 18 items. Three months after the end of the school term, he called on the instructor to say that it was the most helpful class he had ever taken.

A young high school teacher volunteered this comment with regard to the use of democratic principles in the classroom and high school club work: "It's surprising how well fifteen- and sixteen-year-olds begin to show evidence of sound judgment in attacking and solving problem situations, once the shock of the 'new freedom' in investigation and expression has worn off."

While less hostility and resentment to taking responsibility may be found among members of extra-class groups than in the classroom, it is well for the sponsor to be prepared for this possibility. It may be necessary to exercise patience during the transition stages. Otherwise the initiator of the method may decide it is a failure before it has a chance to work.

Activity and Learning. Learning by doing has been an educational maxim for so long that many interpret it to mean that learning takes place

only as an accompaniment to physical activity. Should not activity also mean emotional or mental activity? The visit to the bakery, the boat ride, or the tree planting, which is often the classroom teacher's concession to progressive education, is fruitless without the thinking, talking, and reading which translate the activity into skills or attitudes. The democratic method of teaching and the use of activity require more imagination and effort than some teachers are willing or able to give. The method fails sometimes because of this.

In the democratic group of students or community organizations, action often follows study and discussion. The student council develops a process for handling traffic; the school legislative council recommends the building of tennis courts; the civil rights committee petitions restaurants to admit Negroes; the League of Women Voters sends a wire to their congressman. If the group agrees that it considers itself an action group and if study indicates that action is possible and desirable, then it falls short when its activities stop with study.

Equally ineffective is the group which acts without sufficient study and discussion. Powell (171:149*ff*.) says:

Books, field study, and action should be able to supplement each other. The first two do so with relative ease. What can we say of the third? Only that there is at present a gap that education must learn how to bridge. The American too often escapes into action as a relief from the exertion of thought; the danger always is that he will make it a substitute for thought. The action goal by itself tends both to attract another type of person, a more impatient executive or didactic mind, and to change the whole spirit of group process by putting the emphasis more on accomplishment than on understanding. In the hands of a genuine educator, and applied by members of a community to its own problems and the solutions they themselves can create, group action is group education. But even there it need not be divorced from thinking, talking, reading. Our own conclusion would be that group action can contribute mightily—it cannot alone constitute an education.

The sponsors of student governing bodies and clubs can help their groups prepare for action by calling attention when information is lacking, making information available, and encouraging members to read and discuss before action is taken.

Mixing democracy with autocratic authority does not work well. The student council whose laws are not observed by the administration loses interest in the work. The committee whose report is ignored feels futile and unnecessary and has no heart to take on another task. The club which listens to the leader expound regularly on the work of the club finds little inspiration to carry out the club projects.

The failure of this mixture to produce harmony and self-directiveness

was observed in an experiment in dormitory government. The residents were encouraged to elect their house council. They understood that they were to make and enforce their own rules and plan their own activities. Enthusiasm mounted and an activity program which included every member was developed. After unannounced inspections and disciplinary action by the housing director and comptroller, the members gradually became aware that their house council really had very little power. The result was increasing vandalism, scapegoatism, drinking parties, decreasing interest in activities, and hostility toward the college administration.

The ability of groups to govern themselves was demonstrated in the case of violations by members of another group. The organization was called together, and the charges of vandalism were presented. The dean of students asked the group three questions: (1) Are these charges true? (2) Are they of concern to this group? (3) Do you want to do anything about it?

After "buzzing" the group, the dean summarized the discussion and the meeting was adjourned. Within an hour 20 culprits were apprehended and disciplined by the group. Vandalism by this group was virtually eliminated during the rest of the school year.

Confusion, hostility, and apathy are found in groups in which democracy is mixed with autocratic authority. People involved in this kind of mixture may be heard to observe that democracy was tried, but it did not work.

Summary

Extra-class activities offer many opportunities for learning, particularly in areas of citizenship and leadership. The extra-class program is the positive side of the student personnel program.

If the group experience is to be productive, certain conditions must prevail: mutual respect among members; opportunities for all to participate in activity and decision making; communication between members and leaders; access to full information; definition of goals; study and discussion preceding action; understanding of human emotions and motivations; and recognition that authority resides in the group.

Fallacies in our thinking are: confusing democracy with benevolent autocracy; confusing democracy with a laissez-faire policy; assuming that a majority opinion is the consensus; confusing facts with issues; assuming that the forms of democracy ensure that it exists. The great fallacy is to assume that responsible citizens can evolve without actual experiences in taking responsibility.

Resistance to democratic methods can be expected particularly in a group which has been governed by autocratic leaders, but resistance and

hostility are commonly followed by positive attitudes and productivity, providing the group is genuinely democratic. Such a group assumes more and more of the responsibility and the leader less and less.

Lagging cooperation, scapegoatism, hostility, and violation of rules are symptoms indicating that something is wrong with the methods or basic philosophy of the organization. Using group members as scapegoats is common in organizations governed by autocratic leaders or where democracy is mixed with autocracy. Cooperation lags and rules are broken when the members do not help to make up the rules by which they live and when they have little part in planning the projects. Hostility is generated under extremely autocratic administration or when a change is made from autocratic to democratic leadership. Apathy results from benevolent paternalism.

Democratic methods are useful in the classroom, in extra-class groups, and in faculty and staff meetings.

CHAPTER 5 *Student Government and Extra-class Activities*

A statement of the philosophy behind student self-government is found in the New York City Board of Education publication *The High School Student and His General Organization* (27).

It is an acknowledgement of one of the principal aims of education and one of the most effective methods of education. It is evidence that the schools recognize as an aim of the highest importance the training of young people in the ideals, habits, and attitudes of democracy, and in the art of government as we practice it. . . . It is an application, also, of the principle that learning is best accomplished by doing. Student government affords young people the opportunity to learn the rights, duties, and practices of democracy by allowing them to live democratically.

Prunty (177:203ff.) calls attention to the "potential avenues for cultivating individual effectiveness and personal growth." We should not lose sight of the needs of the individual in our efforts to perfect the group "process." The two go together.

Gains in social adjustment were reported by Aldrich [1] among a group of college freshmen girls who were involved in student activities as compared with a control group who were not. The experimental group and the control group were selected from freshman girls who had scores in the lower half of two of the three distributions of Social Preference and Social Behavior [2] (Minnesota Inventory of Social Attitudes) and who indicated they participated in few activities named on a check list. Each member of both groups was counseled in the customary manner by a member of the counseling bureau staff. Members of the experimental group were

[1] Aldrich, Margaret G., "An Exploratory Study of Social Guidance at the College Level," *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 2, 1942, 209–216. (Reprinted in 34:500.)

[2] Williamson, E. G., and J. G. Darley, *Minnesota Inventory of Social Attitudes*, Forms P and B, Psychological Corporation, New York.

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given special attention to introduce them into groups in which they had indicated an interest. At the close of the school year, a comparison of these groups by means of tests and retests with the Minnesota Inventory of Social Attitudes, the Bell Adjustment Inventory (social scale) (21), and the Rundquist-Sletto Inferiority Scale (197) showed significant differences between gains in social adjustment of the two groups. Girls in the experimental group indicated at the close of the experiment they felt that they had more friends, participated in more activities, and were less critical of the social program than did the girls in the control group.

The rankings of the two groups on six objective measures given as entrance tests were quite similar. The girls were among students who came for counseling through the usual channels and were not told they were taking part in the experiment. Introductions to activity groups were made in as natural and informal a way as possible.

With regard to administrative aims of student government, the New York Board of Education publication on student government contains this statement (27): "It is admitted that a well-functioning system of student participation aids immeasurably in making smooth the administration of a school. This should be considered a pleasant by-product of such a system rather than one of its aims." The aims are educational, not administrative.

However, the two, the democratic processes and the end result—a safe and orderly community—are intertwined. The mistake is made when we want to skip over the process and arrive at the outcome by any means. Law and order secured by expediency are temporary and exceedingly artificial. An orderly community if achieved by democratic means is one in which personalities can thrive and develop.

Aims

The aims of student government are: to ensure a safe and orderly community, to provide such services as the members desire for their well-being and fulfillment, and to afford the students experiences in democratic living.

A safe community is one where measures are taken to prevent fires, control traffic, and regulate harmful or undesirable behavior. An orderly community implies that means are provided for the selection of competent leaders, communication between leaders and members, fair election practices, etc.

Services to students include a social program in which all can participate; a range of activities which offers interesting possibilities for all students; an intramural program; instruction in dancing, etiquette, crafts, photography, or whatever skills the students wish to learn outside the

classroom; sports equipment or facilities, such as tennis courts, for the use of all (providing these cannot be supplied out of school funds and the students wish to use their activity money in that way); concerts and lectures if desired; school publications such as yearbook and newspaper; get-acquainted literature and activities for new students.

Principles

Principles which guide the sponsors and administrators in reorganizing, developing, or launching a student-government program are:

1. The program must originate with the students or jointly with students and faculty.
2. The governing body must be permitted to treat problems which are real to the students.
3. The governing body must have real power and know what it is.
4. Study must precede action of the student governing body.
5. Time must be provided before elections to establish standards for candidates and to consider qualifications of nominees.
6. The administration and faculty must demonstrate their belief in the ability and integrity of the students.
7. The administration and faculty must give student government an important place in the school.

The booklet *Your School and Its Government* (106) gives some suggestions on how the school council should be organized.

1. It must include everybody, students, teachers, engineers, janitors, principal, counselors.
2. It must give everybody a feeling of partnership.
3. There must be many opportunities to serve. (The authors point out that if all the student does in the council is to vote twice a year, the council will not mean much to him. They describe the use of the commission, only one member of which is on the council. This spreads out participation.)
4. There must be opportunity and machinery for legislation by the ordinary citizen of the school. He must be able to originate an idea and get it before the student body.
5. There must be ample opportunity for discussion by the ordinary citizen.
6. It must allow for mistakes.

Problems

Some of the problems of student government are:

1. How an we ensure that everyone will be represented?
2. How shall we divide the responsibility?
3. How can we coordinate all activities of the school with the governing body?
4. How can we facilitate communication between the student governing council and other organizations?

5. What is the relationship to the faculty and administration? (They are in the community, too.) [3]

6. How can we spread out participation and avoid letting the same leaders do most of the work?

7. How can we overcome the lack of continuity when there is a complete turnover in membership every three or four years?

8. How can students get acquainted with candidates for office?

9. How much disciplining should students do?

10. How can we prevent ill-considered action?

These problems are treated in the latter part of the chapter, and practical illustrations are given.

Some of the above-named problems are more commonly found in the large school. It is easy for students in the small high school or college to become acquainted with candidates, to integrate their activities, to communicate with each other. However, they may have problems of insufficient funds, overloaded teachers who can find little time for activities, lack of facilities and space, or the conservative attitude of townspeople toward activities.

The offerings of the school of 100 pupils must be limited to the interests of the majority and possibly to those of their sponsors. The student with a consuming passion for learning ceramics may find herself alone in her hobby, but maybe she can participate as a member of a home economics club.

In the small school it frequently happens that the same students play in the band, sing in the choir, play on the basketball team, debate, and serve on the student council. This is a difficult situation to avoid, because some of the stars seem indispensable to every organization, but sponsors should keep up the search for new talent and spread out the honors as far as possible.

The authors have found no lack of enthusiasm among students. It has always been easy to find high school or college students to work hard on problems of student-faculty relations, traffic control, a new constitution, placement of graduates, or whatever problems exist. They have shown a willingness to study the methods of other schools, the needs of their own schools, and the opinions of experts and to make use of all information at their disposal. The sponsor or administrator can help by supplying the names of national organizations, college agencies, books, magazines, and bulletins where relevant information can be secured. He can help to arrange interviews, prepare questionnaires, and plan opinion polls.

Representation. The problem of representation is discussed in the book-

[3] Donald H. Ford found that 90 per cent of the Kansas State College students in 1949 felt that governing the college community should be done by faculty, students, and administration, but that students should have a large share (72).

let *Your School and Its Government* (106). Representation by grade is discouraged because there are usually no regular meetings of the grade during the school day and the members do not have sufficient time together to get acquainted. There are some exceptions to this rule, especially among the smaller schools. The grade in the small high school would be an adequate base for representation providing it is a real group with mutual aims and real ties and experience in working together.

The home room is considered adequate if the home-room period is sufficiently long to give time for the discussion of school problems, but not if it is used principally for administrative convenience. Groupings according to a selected period or a required subject such as English or social studies are suggested. Using the core or unified studies classes as units for representation is also recommended. Base units for representation should be small, according to the bulletin *The High School Student and His General Organization* (27).

Representation in the college is more difficult if the student body does not live together. Representation by schools or divisions presents problems. For instance, in a college where the student council totaled nine members, the veterinary medicine school with 215 enrolled could not be granted less than one member, while the arts and science college with 2,200 students could elect only three. Geographic representation appears impractical, since students living in private homes are scattered all over town. A plan to supplement representation by schools or divisions was worked out for one college, but received little support from the students because of the comparatively small number of students living in any one area and because they were not acquainted with each other.

Proportional representation, if based on the largest unit, could create a large, unwieldy legislature. The unicameral governing body which performs all functions of school government is the rule. A fairly large legislature and a smaller executive body would provide for representation and still permit rapid action in case it is needed.

Obstacles. The National Self Government Committee publication *Your School and Its Government* (106) lists these persistent problems:

1. Failure to get total school participation
2. Failure to attack problems that are real to youth
3. Failure to have faith in young people
4. Failure to give the council a position of importance in the school
5. Misunderstanding by teachers and administrators

This point is explained: "We tend to sway back and forth between two extreme positions—on the one hand, that of dictator or benevolent autocrat, and on the other hand, that of the outsider who takes no part

in the decisions or activities but who criticizes their results. We have not yet learned how to lend the benefit of our maturity and experience without dominating the group."

The first point of failure listed above is partially the result of ineffective organization. Expanding the student governing body, division of responsibility, and improving means of communication can help to increase participation. The attitude of administration and faculty also affects participation. Providing opportunities to feel success in group activities increases participation.

Overcoming the other four obstacles means a revision of attitudes and methods on the part of the faculty and administration.

Relationship with Administration

The administrator is responsible to the board of education or the board of trustees and to the parents and patrons of the school as well as to the students. He is a part of the school community and his position in the community should be made clear to the students and student officers. Government is a joint responsibility with students and faculty.

The student constitution should include a section defining the powers and responsibilities of the administrator and his relationship to the student governing body. The legal responsibility of the school principal or person in charge of a school is pointed out by the bulletin *The High School Student and His General Organization*. The veto power is recommended for the principal, but he is cautioned to use it sparingly (27).

The administrator or his representative should meet with the student governing council and they should be encouraged to seek opinions and information from him. A joint faculty-student-administrative council would help ensure communication and understanding. In such a relationship, respect generates respect. The students pay respect to those who respect them.

The selection of student council advisers or faculty representatives is very important. The advisers must be alert to opportunities to expand and to encourage the exercise of student initiative. They keep the rest of the faculty informed on student affairs and student attitudes and help both students and faculty to evaluate the effectiveness of student government. They must understand how the students feel and how the faculty members feel and interpret each to the other. They make the help of the faculty available to the student officers when they need it. The teachers will soon become aware of benefits to themselves from the government program, according to the bulletin of the New York Board of Education (27). The teacher's role is described not as detective, policeman, judge, and executant, but as friend and counselor. A representative of the administration as well

as elected faculty members should attend every student-government meeting.

While the faculty sponsor or faculty representatives to the student-faculty-administrative council may very well be elected, class or home-room sponsors are usually selected by the high school principal or the director of student personnel. High school principals at a regional leadership conference in the spring of 1951 agreed that allowing the students to elect sponsors created many problems. The favorite teacher may be elected to office in every class or home room. This makes every other teacher second choice. In a large school, the assignment of students and teachers to home rooms is an arduous task and limited by mechanics of arrangement and available time.

Joint responsibility implies that

1. Students can make recommendations to the administration regarding changes in practices which are lawfully administration responsibilities.

2. The administration should give serious consideration to any measure they recommend.

3. The administration can make recommendations to the students with regard to measures which are within their field of responsibility.

For example, students cannot decide how to spend school tax money, but they can recommend new services and classes. The administration and the board of education or board of regents decide whether or not funds are available to make the changes and whether they are in accord with state laws and the wishes of the electorate or the patrons of the school. On the other hand, administrators or sponsors should not make decisions about the budgeting of student-activity money, but they can make recommendations to the student governing agency.

The administration can count on some student recommendations being good. Others will be made which are not in conflict with laws or the prerogatives of the administration, procedures which might just as well be carried out in the way the students recommend as in any other way. Good training for student leaders and a careful selection of sponsors will provide for increasingly reasonable and constructive recommendations from the students. All their recommendations should be given careful consideration by the administration. If they cannot be carried out, the students are entitled to full information and explanation.

Organization

The New York Board of Education bulletin recommends (27):

1. One central governing council to which all extra-class and student governing activities are secondary

2. Well-defined fields in which the student council has power (to be expanded as rapidly as students show willingness and ability to accept responsibility)

3. Time in home-room periods for discussion of government problems

4. An executive council plus a student assembly (a lower house responsive to the student body)

Castka (40:297ff.) suggests that the student government include student council, home-room congress, student court, service squad, leadership course. Representatives in the home-room congress would report back to their own home rooms. The service squad would enforce laws and be responsible for all student conduct outside of class.

In a small school the central council might handle almost all matters. Some could be referred back to home rooms or general assembly.

The governing agencies in a large student body should include executive, judicial, and legislative arms, with the usual responsibilities. All subgroups, clubs, organizations, class and school or division councils, and dormitory councils should be chartered and approved by the executive body and should have communication with the general governing body. Special subcommittees of the governing agencies should be included to perform such services as administering the social program, budgeting the student-activity funds, making policies for the operation of the student union, operating the intramural program, recommending policies for student publications, etc. Communication should be ensured between the governing agencies and representatives of such large groups of students as class councils, home-room officers, the interfraternity council, panhellenic, YMCA, YWCA, dormitory councils, independent student associations, and the like. The college newspaper, special bulletins, radio programs, and assemblies can help to facilitate communication. All member organizations should provide time for the discussion of government problems and should send their suggestions to the central governing agency. Legislators and executive officers should meet occasionally with subgroups to keep them informed and to keep in touch with their needs and attitudes.

A High School Project

A government and activity program which included almost every student was developed over a period of six years in a small Missouri high school. Although the school in the years during which the program operated, from 1931 to 1937, was hampered by depression and drought and consequently reduced budget and reduced staff, a high degree of morale was maintained.

Student leaders and faculty members agreed that the constitution should be revised. A constitution committee was elected by the students, and additional students were recruited to help with the work. They made

a study of the needs of the school and held hearings to receive suggestions.

Copies of model constitutions were secured and, with the help of faculty members, the committee composed a new constitution providing for representation from classes. Provision was made for the classes to meet weekly during school time so that they could discuss general school matters as well as class business. The enrollment was small (about 120 pupils) so that classes could take the place of the home room. The school was operated on a six-six plan, which threw the two upper elementary grades into the high school. (If the junior high school is in a separate building, the pupils should have their own council. If they go to school in the same building with the high school classes they are in effect in the same community and need to be a part of the same government.)

The student council included one representative from each class plus a sponsor, a president, and two representatives elected from the student body at large. Either the superintendent or the principal was authorized to meet with the council.

Elections were held in March of each year in order that the new officers could meet with the outgoing council and become accustomed to duties before the close of the school year. The constitution stipulated that nominations be made three weeks in advance of the election date so that students could get acquainted with the candidates, required that candidates be making average grades, and recommended that they be selected from students who had given service to the school. One meeting of each class was scheduled four weeks in advance of the election date to discuss desirable qualifications of candidates. Nominations for the sponsor, president, and the two representatives at large were made in a general assembly of the student body before the classes met to nominate their representatives. Each student who made a nomination was required to tell the experience and qualifications of his candidate.

The student council was made responsible for the assemblies and the intramural and general social programs, for administrating student-activity funds, for developing and enforcing rules regarding the use of the building, lockers, traffic in the halls, behavior at games, school plays, and other public events, and for processing violators. Organizations, including classes, were permitted but not required to give one assembly during the year. Provision was made for legislation to be initiated by individual students and for council legislation to be referred to classes or a general assembly of the student body.

The first draft of the constitution was presented to a general assembly of the student body. Suggestions made there were incorporated. It was presented again and adopted.

Among the productive activities was a reorganization of the intramural

program. The student council met with the boys' and girls' basketball squads and presented the problem of trying to operate an intramural program with no teachers available for coaching. The school was so understaffed that most of the teachers taught or kept the study hall almost every period of the day. The gym was quite adequate and equipment was available, but no periods could be found when all the students could be served.

The members of the basketball teams and squads agreed to "coach" during their off periods. A schedule was arranged to accommodate every student except those who were excused for physical disability. A "first-string" player and at least one assistant officiated each period. Conferences were held weekly between the student coaches and the basketball coaches. Basketball, volleyball, and other games were taught. During nice weather games were played out of doors. Intramural tournaments were held.

The student coaches made all arrangements, paired the teams, and ran off the tournaments. The program was substituted for physical education classes. More students were actively involved than had ever taken part in physical education. Very few students asked to be excused.

The following year, the student council and the teams asked to be permitted to hold an invitation tournament for out-of-town visiting teams. They sent the invitations, made housing and transportation arrangements, arranged for registration and officials, recruited students to operate food booths, and ran off the tournament. By the time the event was actually in progress, almost every student had contributed in some way. The band played; the home economics club served food; students patrolled the halls, sold tickets, and kept the cloakroom.

Attendance was so poor at home games that the student council took up the problem. They decided to reduce the cost to 15 cents a person. The gymnasium was filled to capacity after that, and profits were greater than before.

Good-natured rivalry developed over the assembly programs. Each group was eager to present the best program of the year or at least to preserve a respectable reputation. Each group scheduled its assembly date with the student council early in the year. Preparation began well in advance. Some groups wrote original skits. Almost every student had an opportunity to participate in some way.

The problem of finding time for band practice was brought before the student council. If it were scheduled to meet during a class period, some students who wanted to participate had conflicting classes. If it met after school it interfered with basketball practice. If it met at night, farm pupils had to make an extra trip back to town. The student council recommended that the time for passing to classes be reduced from 5 minutes to 2½, saving 12 minutes of school time, and that an additional 18 minutes be added

to the school day to make an extra half-hour period for the band. Band members and director agreed, and the period was added.

One of the projects which originated from the student body was the annual election of the best girl citizen and the best boy citizen. The student who originated the plan presented his idea first to the superintendent and then to the student council. A general meeting was called so that he could explain to the student body. He remarked that there were honors for the basketball team, the band, and the stars of the school plays and the talented musicians performed at public entertainments, but there were students, he said, who worked hard at keeping the books for clubs, painting scenery, or planning menus for parties, who were seldom recognized. He proposed that the best citizen be elected from among students who gave unselfish service to the school. The project was adopted and the awards were given at an assembly late in the year at which basketball letters and contest prizes were announced.

Among other projects originating among the students and carried out with their assistance were a May Day fete, a county rural school contest, and various out-of-town band concerts and activities which are a part of the program of the average school. Students took an interest in servicing the school bus, enlarging the playground, and erecting tennis courts.

Special work with the freshmen was carried on by their sponsors. The rural students entered the ninth grade and made up about half the class. Some of the patterns of class behavior were established during this year. The sponsor used the first class meeting to help the pupils get acquainted. Then he asked, "What do you think the class should do this year?" A party was suggested, but after discussion the class decided on a picnic for the first project. The sponsor asked, "What plans should we make?" After more discussion, he asked, "How do you think we could arrange it so that everyone could have a part in the picnic?" After consideration the class divided itself into five small groups, assigning a duty to each student. This pattern was followed throughout the year. Students who had seldom received any attention found a role in the group and felt accepted for the first time.

One shy girl of average scholastic ability had found her only security in absolute classroom conformity and was competing for high grades. Her failure to meet her own standards kept her in a state of tension and frustration. She was selected to participate in a "style show" given by the freshmen. This stellar role, along with other group experiences, seemed to give her the confidence to take an active part in the group.

Students were permitted to pursue special interests. The general science class asked permission to dig up an Indian grave which was located on a nearby farm. It became a class project. The relics which they uncovered became the basis for a school museum. Fossil rocks, specimens from caves

in the neighborhood, and other exhibits were added. Books and bulletins on related subjects were secured and studied. An assembly program on their project was given.

After five years of the expanding activity program plus counseling, no discipline problems arose during the sixth year. The conduct of students at home events and while visiting other schools provoked voluntary favorable comments. The employers of graduates expressed approval of their employees. At the end of the sixth year, every graduate was placed either in industry or in college, with the exception of a few girls who married. Scholarships and part-time jobs were secured for those who needed financial assistance while in college. The townspeople showed support of the school in many ways, by attendance at school events, lending automobiles for out-of-town trips, and assistance in securing equipment for the band, dramatics, the athletic program, etc. City election returns in the sixth year showed only a single dissenting vote for the school levy, one of the highest in the state. These outcomes were the result of many factors: teaching methods, individual counseling, publicity, and efforts to provide a curriculum which met the needs of the students, but there is no doubt that the activity and government program contributed greatly to morale in the school and community.

The Home Room

At least five types of activity can be productive in the home room. It should

1. Be a unit of the student government with representation in the legislative body and a means of communication with the governing body
2. Have its own social program and be a part of the all-school social program
3. Be a part of the intramural program
4. Participate in the preparation of assembly programs
5. Provide opportunities for the discussion of personal problems or any other subjects in which the members are interested

It should have its own officers and discussion leaders from among the members. Administrative routine should be minimized; the attention of the group and that of the sponsor should be directed toward students' needs and goals. Get-acquainted and orientation activities should be a part of the program for first-year junior high and high school home rooms. It is the ideal place for advising contacts and referrals to counselors and other service agencies to originate.

It should meet during the school day. If in the small school the grade takes the place of the home room, it should be organized and scheduled in the same way.

College Projects

Legislative Council. Progress was made toward spreading out representation and responsibility, communication between student groups, in-grouping the faculty, and treating problems which are real to the students at Kansas State College by means of an annual three-day camp conference on college problems. Active throughout the school year, the conference membership, composed of students and faculty members, serves as a standing subcommittee of the student council, in the capacity of a legislative council. Conference officers and committee members study college problems and practices during the year and present their findings to the conference, which votes on recommendations to submit to the student body and administration. Conference work is done in small discussion groups, each with its own leader and recorder. Each group reports periodically to the general conference.

Each of the 180 college organizations is invited to send a representative to the conference. Volunteers are also welcome. About 20 per cent of the representatives are invited faculty members or administrators. Students chair all the committees and hold all the offices, but faculty members serve on the committees.

Over a period of six years, from 70 to 80 per cent of their recommendations were adopted by the student body and the college administration. Acting upon the conference recommendations, the physical education department for men revised its curriculum to provide suitable training for students who were preparing to teach physical education and coach athletics; the administration arranged for the students to rate the teaching methods of the entire faculty by means of a questionnaire of 18 items prepared by a student-faculty committee; the orientation committee and the council of deans arranged for increased preenrollment advising time; the board of counselors and the council of deans approved a program of in-service training for faculty advisers. A training program in teaching methods was initiated for young instructors and graduate assistants. Students were appointed or elected to faculty committees on academic honesty, religious policy, athletic control, traffic control, and others.

The apportionment of the student-activity funds was studied to see if they could be used to serve a greater percentage of the students. An all-school social program was initiated to encourage wider contacts among all of the students, discourage cliques, and serve previously neglected groups. A temporary student union was erected and outdoor tennis courts were built. The biweekly college newspaper became a daily.

The students on faculty committees and in other positions of trust take their responsibilities seriously. They work hard and exhibit good judgment

in the selection of relevant data and in making decisions relating to the welfare of the college. It is not uncommon for them to relinquish entertainment to continue work on an exacting project.

The committee to study the possibility of a centralized placement office sent to ten leading universities for information, consulted textbooks and magazine articles, and polled the opinions of department heads on their own campus. The student-government committee studied the constitutions of 25 student governing bodies and the constitution of the United States. They made use of opinion polls, general assemblies, and small group meetings throughout the year to tap student opinion and keep the students informed on their findings.

Students often volunteer to take on a conference job, to arrange transportation, run the mimeograph machine, send out letters, etc.

Faculty response to the activity has been generous. An outside visitor to the 1950 conference listed among the things which impressed him most "the spirit of friendliness among students and faculty." Increased respect for student opinion is shown among the faculty. Faculty members come to see the student as a whole individual with a social side as well as an academic side. The informal atmosphere of the camp contributes to understanding between students and faculty and among various student groups. On controversial issues students are seldom aligned against faculty; usually both faculty members and students are found on both sides of a question.

The students develop understanding for the problems of faculty and administration. Often they arrive at decisions which are identical to those the faculty committees would have made alone, but having gone through the study and discussion, they are acquainted with reasons, obstacles, and limiting conditions. When they help to make decisions, they become committed to support them. Student demands have become more reasonable, and outbursts and mass demonstrations have virtually disappeared.

The project originated among the students during the period following the Second World War when increased enrollment and the changing nature of the student body created many problems. The crowded classrooms, housing conditions, and adjustment problems of veterans produced unrest and dissatisfactions. A few student leaders dropped in to discuss informally some of the disturbing campus symptoms with student personnel workers. The discussion was so productive that they wanted to meet again. The meetings became a regular event. Gradually other students were recruited to give information on special subjects which arose in discussion. From this small beginning the idea of the camp evolved. It became known as the Student Planning Conference (shortened to SPC), and the membership was named the Student Planning Committee.

From 20 to 35 faculty members and from 75 to 130 students attended the conferences.

There was strong opposition to the proposed conference from among the students in one division of the college. A petition was circulated to bring the matter to a vote of the entire student body. The student body voted in favor of the camp, but only one student from the dissenting group attended the camp conference. During six years of SPC activity the students from this curriculum have become active in the conference work and in other all-school activities. Some have been elected to office in the organization.

Although members of the student personnel staff and faculty have served in an advisory capacity to the student group, most of the actual work of planning agenda, arranging for housing, recreation, and transportation, organizing, and reporting the conference has been done by students. A part of the cleaning and dishwashing at camp is done by the delegates themselves. They agree on their own rules and help to enforce them. There have been no discipline problems, no automobile accidents, no thefts. Meetings are orderly, and courteous attention is given to every opinion.

An incident during the first conference set a standard for subsequent camps. Boos greeted a student who voiced some criticisms of the camp. Another student quietly injected the statement that "all views should be welcome in a meeting like SPC," pointing out that the critic might be speaking as the representative of a large group of students. The meeting went on in an orderly fashion and such an incident has not occurred again.

The members take as much responsibility as the leaders for the success of the discussions. As previously described in the chapter on the group processes, they assume the roles of clarifier, coordinator, evaluator, summarizer when it is necessary to keep the discussion going. It isn't uncommon to hear a member reflect feeling, "You feel that we haven't given enough attention to your point of view," or suggest that Millie Shy be given a chance to say what she thinks, or to say, "I think we ought to summarize our progress before we go any further."

A change in the atmosphere of the camp takes place during the conference. The first session is sometimes a little stiff and formal. The delegates do not know each other very well. Each member is a little unit to himself. Each thinks of himself as a beta or an engineer or a football player, there to secure some legislation which will benefit his own group or to protect its interests.

The last session is a coordinated effort of the whole, and each member sees himself as a part of the whole. Early remarks—"Do you want a football team as good as other colleges have?" "The band appropriation

has been cut every year," "Debaters pay their own expenses," give way to "A placement bureau would serve every student," "A bigger student council would give more students a chance to participate," "Just what do we mean when we talk about a free press?" "All-school dances will be for everybody." Cliques and petty jealousies begin to disappear as concern for the general college welfare mounts. The atmosphere of the final session is one of warmth, acceptance of each other, and unselfish pride in the achievements of the group.

Previous to the organization of the SPC, the nine-member student council served as legislature, judiciary, and executive body for the student body. The SPC has gradually assumed the responsibility for legislation, thus distributing the work of government and giving valuable group experience to more members. A great many more students are represented in decision making than formerly. The possibilities for research and study before arriving at a decision are extended.

While this project might not be the answer to the student-government problems of other schools, it shows what can be done by recognizing and encouraging the small beginnings of student interest in responsibility taking. A camp conference such as described above would not be so necessary in a small school program, where communication is easy. In a large student body, it provides for contacts between groups which would not otherwise be made and for understanding between groups which might otherwise be in conflict with each other. It makes possible an objective view of the whole college program away from the cloistered atmosphere of the campus. Delegates to the conference gain the most, but they take back to their groups new ideas and techniques.

A few words of caution might be appropriate. In developing a program such as this, neither the faculty nor any group of students can be ignored.

Freshman Training. Leadership responsibility frequently falls on a few students. Leaders among the freshmen fall naturally into line for a succession of presidencies, chairmanships, and student-council positions. The bulk of the students are denied these meaningful experiences.

The programs just described and the use of democratic methods in small group discussions help to spread out the experiences and to create more than the usual number of leadership positions. Leadership preparation for freshmen was added to the student-government program at Kansas State College. It was called the "freshman activities project." Space was provided on the entrance forms for freshmen to indicate an interest in student government. The freshman folders were examined to identify those whose test results and previous experiences suggested leadership ability and interest. Personal invitations were extended to those in both categories to attend a meeting for the purpose of exploring student-

government activities. In addition, a general invitation was issued through the college newspaper to all freshmen who wished to attend.

The scope of the college activities was described by student leaders at a series of bimonthly meetings. Leadership problems and group methods were also presented. The buzz-group technique was used for discussions following brief talks. Special joint meetings were held with the student council, the SPC executive committee, and the student constitution committee. Most of the regular attenders were from the groups who had received personal invitations. Many of them became members of SPC committees.

As a result of this project, the students had a larger group of candidates than formerly from which to choose their leaders, the chosen students were better prepared for leadership, and interest was generated in all-school problems and activities.

Clickenger (45:580ff.) describes a combined class and government program for freshmen in the education school in a large university. The 600 freshmen were divided into groups of about 15 each, which met twice weekly with their advisers. The advisers held weekly clinical conferences with their junior dean. The students met six hours weekly in their orientation classes and received five quarter hours credit.

Each of the 38 conference groups elected representatives to a freshman council, which cooperated with the education college council. The freshman president attended the education college council and the council sent representatives to meet with the freshman council.

A weekly news bulletin issued first by a faculty member was taken over by the students. Social dancing classes were organized by the two councils at the request of the students. The councils jointly sponsored a winter carnival for the whole campus. The class was evaluated by the students at mid-term and suggestions for improvement were made.

Clickenger reports (45:580ff.) that the freshman project tapped and fostered sources of spontaneity in freshmen which the usual processes of going to college seem to deaden. She found more evidences of group unity among the freshmen than ever before.

Leadership Class. In response to student interest in one college, a class was offered in psychological aspects of leadership for students in positions of leadership. The class met two hours weekly for one semester, and two hours of credit were given in psychology. They discussed democratic concepts of leadership. The club presidents and student council members brought their problems to the class for review. Readings were recommended by the instructor. Reports on the suggested references, discussions of how the readings applied to actual situations, and films were used. Each member took a turn as discussion leader, recorder, and process observer.

The recorder made notes on the content of the discussion. The process observer analyzed the extent of participation and emotional reactions of the members to each other; he reported who was talking too much, who was blocking discussion, who dragged a red herring across the trail, etc. Sometimes the roles of recorder and observer were combined. (Mursell says [154] that process observing can become so interesting that the group may overlook content. He believes that a process analysis every third meeting might be better than every time.)

Expressions of hostility toward the instructor and the observer were reflected by the instructor and eventually by leaders and class members: "You feel we are not getting anywhere," "You feel offended . . . embarrassed . . . angry," "You feel sure this would not work," "You feel the observer has put you on the spot." Negative expressions declined and disappeared toward the close of the term and positive expressions increased.

Class members applied the principles and methods they learned to the groups they led and reported the results. Their reports were evaluated in group discussion in terms of how well they were able to make use of the methods. The class also criticized and evaluated the methods and principles.

Each member presented a case study of an organization to which he belonged. The class offered solutions to problems of lagging interest, lack of cooperation, violation of rules, thefts, conflict within the group, spasmodic attendance, discourtesy, disorderly conduct, competition for leadership, jealousy, scapegoatism, financial problems, withdrawn members and withdrawn groups, insecurity and loneliness of leaders, failure to define or reach goals, domination by leaders and others.

A distinction was made between symptoms and underlying causes. Although each class was given much latitude in choosing the subjects it wished to discuss, some of the same problems were introduced each semester. Recurring problems were related to the inability of leaders and members to define and apply democratic concepts.

The characteristics of the benevolent autocrat, hard-boiled autocrat, laissez-faire leader, and democratic leader (described in a foregoing chapter) were studied and defined. Each class member took a turn at playing the role of each type of leader, and his competence in the role was discussed. Organizations were then analyzed according to the conclusions of the class.

The instructor interviewed each member before he began work on his term paper. The student was allowed to select any aspect of the subject. When he had made his decision, the instructor supplied a suitable bibliography. Students were encouraged to discover and evaluate other refer-

ences. Term papers were evaluated according to how well the student was able to internalize and apply democratic concepts.

A number of evaluation devices were used during class sessions. They could be applied to other groups. Classes were asked to rate some sessions on a five-point scale ranging from "excellent" to "no good" and to give suggestions for improvement. Leaders rated themselves on a five-point scale on the following items:

1. Sensitivity to human needs and values
2. Integrity, fairness, and sincerity
3. Tact and self-control
4. Open-mindedness
5. Ability to inspire and develop members
6. Power of analysis and synthesis
7. Training and experience
8. Health and energy

Another three-point scale (often, some, seldom) developed by the class used these items to evaluate leadership:

1. Almost all members participate.
2. Policy decisions are made by the group after full discussion.
3. Majority of members attend.
4. Members, not officers, suggest new projects.
5. I restrict my own comments.
6. Timid members are included.
7. Domination by one or a few is avoided.
8. I define feelings of members and the group.
9. Progress is summarized.
10. Situations analyzed.
11. Alternative courses of action are stated.
12. Points of agreement or disagreement are reviewed.
13. Suggestions are welcomed.
14. Tasks are distributed among the members.
15. Talking time is distributed fairly equally.
16. Board and leader keep the members informed.
17. Appointments are authorized by the group.
18. Interference is avoided after responsibilities are delegated.
19. Rules are made by group.
20. I accept group decisions even when I disagree.
21. Group decisions are carried out.
22. I avoid overselling the group on my ideas.

Process analysis of the class was charted occasionally. The names of class members were arranged around a circle drawn on a sheet of paper and interchange of remarks was shown by arrows drawn between the

speakers. If a few members dominated, the fact was recorded by the number of lines drawn from their names.

A chart was developed for recording the number of times each class member assumed the role of initiator, information seeker, opinion seeker, investigator, information giver, elaborator, orienter, evaluator-critic, energizer, procedural technician, clarifier, feeling definer, encourager, harmonizer, compromiser, observer, aggressor, blocker, recognition seeker, self-confessor, playboy, help seeker, special-interest pleader, and dominator. Instructions to leaders, recorders, and observers were composed by the classes, using relevant readings and their own observations.

The results of the leadership class have been observed by the authors over a period of two years. Class members from the four classes report desirable outcomes and progress toward the solution of harassing group problems. Leaders find that members of their groups who have not attended the class begin to adopt the attitudes and practices learned in the class. Thus they are spread out among the student body.

An interesting phenomenon is observed within the class as the members work together. Respect and friendliness grow. The class draws students from widely separated organizations: fraternities, religious and service organizations, student governing bodies, social clubs, departmental clubs, and all the variety of groups which are found on a large campus. When they find their problems to be similar and find together procedures which are useful and productive, the class itself becomes a cohesive, harmonious group. Members of competing organizations, fraternities in conflict with each other, independents who have been resentful of the Greeks, minority groups with their feelings of rejection, and foreign students find in their common interests and endeavors a unifying experience.

Toward the close of a semester, one such class decided to "take a break" at a halfway point in the class session. They congregated on the front steps of the classroom building and started to sit in rows on the steps. Reluctant to disturb the relationship established in the classroom, they pulled up a lawn seat facing the steps so that all the members could face each other.

Among the most useful references for the leadership class are the following:

Adams, Eugene T., et al., *The American Idea*, Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

Allport, Gordon W., "The Nature of Democratic Morale," in Goodwin Watson (ed.), *Civilian Morale, Second Yearbook of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942.

Allport, Gordon W., "The Psychology of Participation," *Psychological Review*, 52, May, 1945, 117–132.

Back, Kurt, and Bobbie Norfleet, "Interpersonal Relations in a Group Discussion and Group Productivity," *Journal of Social Issues, 4,* No. 2, Spring, 1948, 61–69.

Bradford, Leland P., and Ronald Lippitt, "Role-playing in Supervisory Training," *Personnel, 22,* No. 6, May, 1946, 358ff.

Cantor, Nathaniel, *Dynamics of Learning,* Foster and Stewart, Buffalo, N.Y., 1946.

Ehninger, D., "A Logic of the Discussion Method," *Quarterly Journal of Speech Education, 29,* April, 1943, 163–167.

Hollingshead, Arthur D., *Guidance in Democratic Living,* Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1941.

Jenkins, David H., "Feedback and Group Self-evaluation," *Journal of Social Issues, 4,* Spring, 1948, 50–60.

Jenkins, David H., "Research in Group Dynamics," *Social Education, 12,* No. 8, December, 1948.

Keltner, John W., "How an Observer Can Help a Group," *The Gavel, 31,* No. 3, March, 1949, 45ff.

Lewin, Kurt, *A Dynamic Theory of Personality,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1935.

Lewin, Kurt, "A Research Approach to Leadership Problems," *American Sociological Review, 6,* 1941, 674–687.

Lewin, Kurt, "Group Decision and Social Change," *Readings in Social Psychology,* Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1947, 330ff.

Lewin, Kurt, "Psychology and the Process of Group Living," *Journal of Social Psychology, 17,* 1943, 114ff.

Lewin, Kurt, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created Social Climates," *Journal of Social Psychology, 10,* 1939, 271–299.

Lippitt, Ronald, and Ralph White, "An Experimental Study of Leadership and Group Life," *Readings in Social Psychology,* Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1947, 315–330.

Phillips, Don, "The Technique for Total Group Participation," Hillsdale College, Hillsdale, Mich., March, 1947 (mimeographed).

Redl, Fritz, "Group Psychological Elements in Discipline Problems," *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 13,* No. 1, January, 1943, 77–81.

Slavson, S. R., *Character Education in a Democracy,* Association Press, New York, 1939.

Slavson, S. R., *Creative Group Education,* Association Press, New York, 1940.

Stensland, Per, *Guide to Group Leaders,* Institute of Citizenship, Kansas State College Press, Manhattan, Kans., 1950.

Watson, Goodwin B., *Action for Unity,* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

Watson, Goodwin B. (ed.), *Civilian Morale: Second Yearbook of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues,* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1942.

Woolf, Maurice D., and P. R. Rude, *A Leading Wildcat,* Kansas State College Press, Manhattan, Kans., 1950.

The authors believe that most of the leadership training methods described above would apply to high school students.

The high school leadership class is discussed by Castka (40:297ff.). He would make all officers automatically members of the leadership class. (The results of voluntary membership have been so satisfactory that the authors would question compulsory membership as somewhat contradictory to the philosophy behind the class.) He describes class study of laws, ideals, practices of democratic government, and subjects of importance to class members.

Siemens (209:208ff.) relates the processes and results of a one-unit junior college course in group dynamics. One hour each of lecture and laboratory practice was arranged. Class offices were rotated among the members. Subject matter included parliamentary law, leadership qualities, group thinking and action, common problems of leadership, and current school affairs. The class often discussed the issues before the college student council or the board of trustees. The ideas which developed in the class were sometimes presented to governing bodies and adopted by them.

Siemens reports improvement in morale, cooperation with the school, mechanics of club operation. Students tended to take a less personal attitude toward problems, stayed after class to talk, petitioned to continue the course. More club projects were completed than formerly and new members contributed. Student comments showed understanding of the advantages of an up-to-date student constitution. One organization quadrupled its membership. The seriousness and quality of student campaigning improved.

The leadership class and freshman leadership training program provide some continuity in student government. The democratic ideas and practices of the leader are thus transmitted to members and perpetuated.

The Leadership Conference. A leadership conference was arranged for high school leaders and their sponsors in the vicinity of Kansas State College. Sponsors and students met separately with members of the student personnel staff and members of the college leadership class. The roles of the benevolent autocrat, hard-boiled autocrat, laissez-faire leader, and democratic leader were dramatized by the college students, using high school students as group members in the dramatization. The question for discussion was chosen by the high school students.

Buzz groups were organized and the leadership roles were analyzed. Discussion followed on problems which the high school leaders wished to discuss. The sponsors' meeting followed the same pattern.

The conference was evaluated by both high school students and sponsors as meaningful and productive. Materials on relevant subjects and

copies of a bibliography were distributed. Subsequent requests were made by sponsors and students for additional help in the way of advice and materials. Experience in group work with the high school students indicated that they are able to absorb and apply democratic concepts of leadership to a greater extent than is usually conceded by adults.

Similar conferences with college students, church youth groups, and organizations of all kinds have proved successful. Progress is greater and more lasting as a result of a long-term contact, as in the leadership class, but when time, trained leadership, and facilities are limited, the leadership conference serves a useful function.

Student-Faculty Juries. Without a judicial arm of the student-governing association, the student council or representative body not only makes the laws, but enforces them. Duties may become burdensome; the possibility is there for prejudice or ill feeling to creep in.

Some educators question the advisability of permitting students to participate in discussion of personal misdemeanors or of putting this kind of responsibility on a student. Student-faculty juries do not have the power to make the final decision but can consider the majority of discipline cases and make recommendations. The authors have found that students with this responsibility are capable of fair and objective decisions, providing the whole matter of student government has received careful attention and students are sufficiently interested and informed to elect competent student officers. The routing of such cases should be well defined and the jury should know what its responsibility and powers are. Some of the cases within our experience have been concerned with theft, destruction of property, sexual perversion, threats of murder and violence, as well as horseplay and petty annoyances. The student juries made use of test results and other records in considering the cases. They invited the accused and his accusers and witnesses to present their evidence. They made referrals to the personnel staff when it seemed suitable and to other agencies and made recommendations to administrative officers.

One case had to do with a visit by four students to a neighboring campus, where they attempted to raise their own college flag above the administration building. This incident was preceded by other exchanges of a similar nature. Considerable tension had been building up on both campuses. The culprits were apprehended at the scene of the offense, put into jail at the request of the dean of the offended college, and released in the custody of the dean of students of their own college. The case was brought before a student jury. The jurors asked the following questions: (1) What did you expect to accomplish? (2) What results of your actions might be expected? (3) What do you think can be done to prevent disastrous consequences?

The offending students explored the possibilities, arriving at the conclusion that a mass demonstration might be expected at the next game between the two colleges, that members of the audience on both sides could be badly hurt, that college property could be destroyed, etc. The jury agreed to recommend a fine, which was levied and used to print copies of an agreement between the student councils of the two schools, the copies to be distributed by the four culprits.

Knowing that students are on the juries helps the students to feel that they will be represented in case they run afoul of the campus laws and also makes them feel the social pressure from their peers for socially acceptable behavior. More than this, the students feel in-grouped and a part of the whole governing process.

The faculty members of the jury should permit students as much freedom as possible in decision making. They can vote and secure relevant information, but they should not forget that the experience is an educational one if students are permitted to use judgment and initiative.

Social Program. Unequal opportunities for recreation and socializing often exist on the campus where little attention is given to the over-all social program. Fraternities and sororities, and possibly church groups, dormitories, the YMCA and YWCA make provision for social life, but large segments of the student body may be left out.

Ford's report (71) on a social program for a college of more than 5,000 students indicated that about 75 per cent of those attending college movies lived in private homes, trailers, barracks, own homes, or apartments. In other words this service was utilized principally by students who did not live in organized groups and whose recreational opportunities were thus limited. Attendance at 30 programs ranged from 300 to 600, increasing sharply when the showings were moved from a small to a large auditorium.

A study of attendance at all-college dances attended by 150 to 2,000 couples showed that students attended in about the same ratio of independents to Greeks as the ratio in the student population. Attendance was greatest at "name-band" dances and was limited in some cases by the capacity of the dance floor.

Theoretically the high school or college social program should include some activity for everybody. In addition to dances and movies, Ford (71) lists tennis, square dances, photography, bridge, chess, table tennis, crafts, browsing library, and ice skating among the activities financed from student-activity funds. The funds were allocated by a student-faculty board, which held hearings for all students and groups who wished to present their cases. Recommendations of the student governing groups were carefully considered by the board.

Criteria for allotting funds were:

1. Does the activity provide for participation by all or a majority of students in either an active or spectator role or serve or represent the school in competition?

2. How do the students rank the activity in importance (sampling of student opinion on what activities should receive funds)?

3. What percentage of the membership attend the meetings and participate in activities?

4. What is the history of the allotment (originally raised by a school or division and thrown in with activity fund)?

5. What is the intrinsic worth of activity?

6. Do students get their money's worth (for example, athletic events averaged 11 cents per person per event)?

The social program at Kansas State College is operated by a student-faculty committee which is a subcommittee of the student governing association. A central office for scheduling and clearing events is necessary in order that conflicts be avoided in dates and the use of college facilities.

All-school open houses can involve a large proportion of students. Summer water festivals involving swimming and diving contests and exhibitions and beauty-queen contests have proved successful.

Fraternities and Sororities. Discussions of fraternities and sororities are usually either violently critical or excessively defensive. The authors would like to take a middle-of-the-road stand and present the view that, although some of their practices are undesirable, there are many possibilities in these relatively small living groups for valuable learning experiences. The Greek letter organizations can take credit for providing adequate housing and opportunities for social development for thousands of students long before the universities recognized their responsibilities in these areas.

The group processes already described can be applied to the functioning of Greek-letter organizations. Officers of these organizations who participate in such activities as the student planning conference and leadership groups absorb and transmit to their groups the concepts and attitudes developed there. As a matter of fact, the best opportunities for democratic practice lie in small-group discussion and action. Living and working together in small groups can give every member a chance to use his talents, express his opinions, take responsibility, and have the "growth experience" of contributing toward a group goal. Each can feel the security of belonging and making his efforts count. Skills can be learned which make the individual feel secure in social situations. When the group functions in this fashion, it provides valuable educational experiences in self-direction and self-government.

When the system operates to set one group against another, to glorify the fact of belonging to an aristocratic elite, to promote hostility, resent-

ment, and envy, then the system is guilty of achieving less than its potentialities. Chants of self-aggrandizement, "You must be a Sigma or you won't go to heaven when you die," "Eureka girls are the fairest," "We are the strongest, the smartest, the best," offend the listener who believes in the innate dignity and value of every individual and who abhors the philosophy of special privilege for a few.

Such admonitions as "Remember that it is your duty to your fraternity to cultivate the acquaintance of important men on the campus and to seek campus political offices, know the celebrities, athletes, and the town's best barber," produce a superficial interest in the over-all college program. The adherent of such a policy is easily distinguishable. Overemphasis on "wearing your coat to dinner, taking soup from the side of your spoon, rising in the presence of your elders" is likely to dwarf the most profound concept of courtesy and consideration for others.

However, undue concern for the prestige of self and one's own small group is not always the rule in fraternity groups. Loyalty to college and community above fraternity is urged by some fraternity publications. Much unselfish work in student government and service organizations is done by many fraternity and sorority members. Some groups are trying to evaluate and improve their procedures and to understand the role of the Greek society on the campus.

College authorities, in some instances, have made living in college-operated dormitories compulsory for all freshmen and delayed rushing until the beginning of the sophomore year. This procedure is an improvement over the traditional routine. "Rush week," with its hectic competition, strenuous activities, and inevitable disappointments, has been a target for nation-wide criticism.

The heavy schedule of events and obligations diverts the attention of the freshman from entrance testing and all-college activities planned to help him get acquainted with college opportunities and requirements. Some rushees attend only the events required by college authorities, thus missing many valuable contacts with classmates, faculty members, and educational advisers. A sampling of opinion among sorority pledges and independent women at Kansas State College revealed 90 per cent dissatisfaction with the practice of preenrollment rushing of freshmen girls.

The routine follows approximately this order: During the first two days of rush week, all rushees visit each sorority house for twenty or thirty minutes each. After the second day, each sorority decides which girls it wants to invite back. After two more days of social activity, choices are indicated by both rushees and sororities.

Emotional strain is put not only on the rushees but on chapter members as well. In confusion and haste the new girl selects her new home for four

years. The superior girl without previous acquaintance with a member or alumna is often overlooked. Undue emphasis is placed on superficial characteristics. Rejected girls feel a sense of failure, many times through no fault of their own. Some return home rather than live with the stigma they feel is attached to rejection. Those who remain must look for a place to live, often a serious problem in an overcrowded college town. A girl's first-choice sorority may not bid her and she may join her second- or third-choice group with a feeling of frustration and resentment.

"A false picture of sorority life," "too short to make an intelligent choice," "too much pressure," "interferes with adjustment to the college" are among the criticisms made by students at Kansas State College.

Although there is active opposition among sorority actives and alumnae to delayed rushing, some members see advantages in it for their organization. Time for girls to establish study habits and make campus-wide contacts would prepare them for productive membership. Time for actives to observe the habits and achievements of the new students would make selection easier. Girls who come for one year only for the purpose of joining a sorority would be eliminated. Scholarship, character, and leadership qualities would outweigh charm and ill-considered recommendations.

However, the policy of deferred rushing is only one of many measures which might help fraternities and sororities to achieve their potentialities. A study of the responsibilities and skills of democratic leadership could give the officer insights into the needs and possibilities of his group. A common concept of the leader role is making decisions for the group and selling them his idea. When the leader develops a fuller concept of leadership, he looks for latent talent among retiring members, involves the whole membership in group projects, and displays respect for the opinions of each member.

The democratic leader comes to regard his group not as a select little self-sufficient community, apart from the common herd, but as a unit in the whole. He realizes that what is good for the "whole" is good for his group and for him, and he develops these concepts among his constituents.

Meetings of representatives from all-campus groups, forums, and camp conferences away from the campus help to create respect for differing opinions and dispel the illusion of superiority and inferiority.

Some of the responsibility for the objectionable practices of fraternities can be assigned to college faculties who dismiss their activities as frivolous and unrelated to classroom work. While professional and technical skills are learned in the classrooms, attitudes are substantially influenced by one's peers in social groups. The social side of college life cannot be arbitrarily separated from the classroom. Learning to live with other people is a part of college training. College faculties could do much to im-

prove opportunities in this area and to coordinate them with academic work.

Some of the problems commonly arising on a campus where fraternities and sororities are well established are

1. Resentment develops between independents and Greeks because the in-dependents feel left out and the Greeks feel on the defensive.

2. Greeks are inclined to feel themselves beyond the authority of the college and to resist college regulations.

3. Greek activities may be scheduled at times when they interfere with all-college activities.

4. The patronizing and superior pose of some Greek members as demonstrated in their songs and in other ways is offensive to non-Greeks.

5. Resentment is built up among racial and minority groups who are barred from membership.

6. Students who are rushed but not pledged, those who wish to be rushed and are ignored, and those who cannot afford to join develop feelings of failure, rejection, and resentment.

7. Efforts to in-group the Greeks and to eliminate undesirable practices may be regarded as threats to the lives of the organizations and unite them against administration.

8. Practices within the groups interfere with the development of democratic concepts and with preparation for citizenship.

9. Authoritarian practices within the organizations provoke hostility and scapegoatism in their own groups.

10. Overemphasis on superficial values—appearance, money, table manners—is out of proportion to the emphasis on human values and delays maturity and the development of a feeling of responsibility to the whole community.

11. The isolation of the Greeks may interfere with their use of college services such as advising, counseling, remedial reading, and the like.

12. The drive for prestige and power can be noticed among Greeks, and aspiration to college offices may come from those drives rather than from the motivation to give service.

13. Greeks in office may seek advantages for their own organizations instead of working for legislation which would benefit the student body as a whole.

14. Authoritarian practices among alumnae, advisers, and national officers interfere with the propagation of democratic concepts.

15. Interfraternity councils and panhellenic councils commonly make rules without authorization from the member organizations.

These problems are not confined exclusively to Greeks. Church groups may be authoritarian in nature. The band, football team, or other group may send representatives to the student governing council to lobby for special privileges. The drive for prestige and power can be found among members of other groups.

Scapegoating, patronizing airs, self-aggrandizement, self-interest, and

the pursuit of sectional interests are problems of our society. Why blame the young college student for adopting the pattern of his elders?

Halbower compared (88) the test results of 42 unaffiliated college women and 20 sorority women at Kansas State College, using their freshman test results and retest results after four years of college. He reported that sorority women tend to be recruited from the large towns and cities. Sixty-five per cent of the sorority women queried in his study reported they came from high school senior classes of more than 100. Only 19 per cent of the unaffiliated women came from high school classes of more than 100; 36 per cent came from classes of 5 to 25 members. Forty-five per cent of the unaffiliated women came from classes of from 26 to 100 members. Unaffiliated women tended to come from larger families than sorority women. While 50 per cent of the unaffiliated women students were employed, 25 per cent of the sorority women were employed.

In answer to the question, "Do you feel that in your college life you have had adequate social experiences?" 100 per cent of the sorority women answered "yes," while 88 per cent of the unaffiliated women answered "yes." Thirty-five per cent of the sorority women participated in intramurals, while only seven per cent of the unaffiliated women participated.

Fourteen per cent of the unaffiliated women and none of the sorority women checked the statement, "I usually feel inferior to my associates."

Twenty-six per cent of the unaffiliated women felt they did not know how to take good lecture notes as compared to 10 per cent of the sorority women. Nineteen per cent of the unaffiliated group checked the statement, "I have been unable to determine what I am best able to do," and 10 per cent of the sorority women checked this statement.

Halbower found significant differences in personality-test results between the two groups. As measured on the morale scale of the Minnesota Personality Scale there was a greater percentage of normals (those falling between the 90th and 10th percentiles) in the sorority group than in the unaffiliated group, indicating belief in society's institutions and future possibilities. More deviates (those in the upper 10 per cent or the lower 10 per cent) were found in the unaffiliated group, indicating either cynicism or naïveté and uncritical acceptance of society. The sorority group included a much larger percentage of "oversocialized" women than did the unaffiliates as measured by the Social Adjustment Scale of the Minnesota Personality Scale. The unaffiliated group had a much larger group percentage of "undersocialized" women.

The number of deviates indicated by the Family Relation Scale appeared to be about the same for the two groups when they were freshmen. However, deviates decreased among the unaffiliated women during

four years of college while deviates increased in the sorority group. (Deviations indicate either home conflict or overdependence on family.)

In the sorority group, deviates on the Economic Conservatism Scale were predominantly ultraconservative, while among unaffiliated women deviates tended to be very liberal in economic attitudes. Because the number of students involved in this study is small, the results are not conclusive, but interesting questions are raised and further study is suggested.

Patricia Nelson (238) studied changes in attitudes during two years in college. She used tests and retests of the Minnesota Personality Scale and the Strong Vocational Interest Bank. Complete retest data and information about participation in activities, etc., were available on 108 students. According to her study, 60 per cent of the students living in college dormitories as compared with 27.8 per cent of those living in Greek houses made gains in social adjustment. (However, it is possible that the Greek group was originally better socialized.) On emotional adjustment, 63.4 per cent of the dormitory students and 27.8 per cent of the Greeks made gains. On an experimental scale of democratic attitudes, 53 per cent of the dormitory residents as compared with 11 per cent of the Greeks made gains. Fifty-six per cent of the Greeks and 30 per cent of the dormitory residents made gains toward interest maturity.

Ford (72) found that members of social fraternities and sororities feel better informed concerning student-government activities than do other students.

Four experimental scales, designed as a part of the Cooperative Study on the Evaluation of General Education of the American Council on Education, were used to compare student attitudes on the basis of living groups (239).

Those living in dormitories made significantly more positive changes on the democratic attitudes scales, while the Greeks made significantly less positive changes and significantly more negative change. Students living out in town in private homes and small organized houses made the greatest gains on attitudes toward responsibility and those living in dormitories made the least changes in their attitudes toward responsibility. Evidently students living in dormitories became more democratic in their outlook but do not have adequate opportunities for taking responsibility for themselves to develop it fully. Sororities and fraternities evidently have plenty of opportunities for taking responsibility but evidently assume it in an authoritarian atmosphere and with an authoritarian attitude.

These findings apply to the college where the study was made and not necessarily to other college situations. However, observation would lead us to believe that sorority and fraternity experience does not commonly develop democratic attitudes among members.

According to the evidence we have, sorority women tend to have more

satisfying social experiences, participate in more intramurals, and indicate more belief in society's institutions and future possibilities. Fewer have feelings of inferiority, have trouble taking lecture notes, or have difficulty in determining what they are best able to do. Greeks tend to feel that they have more information about student government than do other students. They apparently make more gains toward interest maturity and have more opportunities to take responsibility. On the negative side, Greeks evidently make fewer gains toward emotional adjustment during two years of college, fewer gains toward democratic attitudes, and less progress toward home adjustment.

The lack of progress toward democratic attitudes seems a serious problem, but the possibilities for democratic group experience are there. The obstacles of tradition, vested interest of alumnae, remoteness of house mothers from the campus, and hostility toward changes in their procedures stand in the way. Any change will take a long time, because the work will have to be done not only with students, but with alumnae, parents, faculty advisers, and house mothers.

The director of student personnel or dean of students should meet regularly with fraternity and sorority presidents and introduce democratic methods and concepts. Meetings should also be held with the house mothers and advisers to acquaint them with services on the campus, opportunities for referral, and methods of identifying students who need counseling and to introduce democratic concepts and methods. The inter-fraternity and panhellenic council sponsors should be members of the student personnel staff.

These questions can be raised: Do you want to be a part of the college community? How can we facilitate communication between your organizations and the other college organizations including student government and the administration? How can the student personnel program serve your needs? How can you best contribute to the college community? Is your organization fulfilling its potentialities? How can you evaluate the achievements of your organization?

Summary

Student government should provide for actual participation in democratic processes; deal with problems which are real to the students; provide opportunities for personal growth; serve the needs of the school community; include everybody—faculty, administration, and students; originate with the students; provide for comprehensive study before action is taken; have real power; ensure an orderly community.

Some of the problems of representation, communication, participation, distribution of powers and responsibilities, in-grouping the faculty, and

prevention of ill-considered action can be minimized by the use of a legislative council such as the student planning committee and conference as an advisory body or legislative arm of the student governing body. Distribution of responsibilities and the supply of trained leadership can be augmented by a special training program for freshmen, by classes for leaders already in office, and by leadership conferences.

High school and college students have demonstrated their ability to internalize and apply democratic concepts after study, discussion, and practice in techniques.

The high school or college social program should be organized to include a variety of activities to satisfy the needs of a majority of the students.

Fraternities and sororities apparently do not prepare members for democratic citizenship, but through participation in democratic group experience and leadership training, leaders and members could make better use of the group-living experience.

CHAPTER 6 *Group Therapy and Self-exploratory Groups*

Student personnel work through existing extra-class activities offers many possibilities, some of which have been explored in the foregoing chapters. There is also a place in the student personnel program for the small informal discussion group in which high school or college students can explore common problems or questions of mutual interest. Some such groups are composed of people who have serious personality problems or who are seeking to find some meaning in their lives. Others are sometimes formed from among people who agree to study and discuss subjects which interest or puzzle them.

Members of the therapy group exchange ideas and compare experiences, dwelling on solutions for their personal problems. The leader reflects feelings expressed by the members. Members are often counseled individually between sessions.

A variation is the therapy class, which may be labeled personal psychology or some similar title (for which credit may be given) but which is geared to needs and interests of the students. The instructor of one such class said that among the variety of subjects which were introduced, questions of sex, religion, and race invariably arose, subjects which may be ignored in the classroom or activity group, but which are nevertheless matters of concern to students.

An effective discussion group can contribute to clarification and definition of values, to understanding of interpersonal relations, and to personality organization among normal individuals as well as those who are trying to overcome emotional problems. As a member of the group, the individual can see himself as a member of society. He finds that others have similar problems and that they have lived through similar experiences. He learns how other people feel and how they react toward him and toward each other. The potentialities in group experience were sug-

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gested by Kurt Lewin's (115:114) prediction that work with human beings not as isolated individuals but in the social setting of groups would become one of the most important theoretical and practical fields.

Attention of the group and its leader is directed toward understanding of emotional factors, affections and hostilities, projections and displacements which condition the thinking of its members. Powell (171:40) considers the group an instrument of reorientation. He believes the prime agency of mental health and maturity is membership in a corporate activity of thinking.

A High School Discussion Group

Discussion in small groups of high school girls included subjects not often covered in the classroom or extra-class activities. Among questions introduced were the following: How does a girl treat a boy who is leaving to go into the armed services? What kind of a girl do boys like? How does she know when a boy likes her? Can she be nice and still get dates? How does she let a boy know where the limits are? Who controls the boundaries of behavior? What do you talk about on a date? Insecurity felt in new situations was described: cold hands, blushing, trembling. The need to feel accepted was expressed in wishes to look well, to look like someone else, to change appearance, to change self, to change hair styles. The enlistment of boys in the armed services, problems of girls who were left without escorts or husbands, social life without boys, going to college, choosing a vocation were discussed.

One group of 15 boys in the same high school spontaneously talked about sex, promiscuity, contraceptives, and other aspects. They felt they lacked information and asked to see a film on the subject. The leader agreed providing they could secure the permission of their parents.

Boys who expected to be drafted discussed their problems. Most of them were not satisfied with their scholastic achievement.

One group asked if they might study communism. They said they thought they "should know something about it—why democracy is better." They wondered why it could not be taught in the classroom.

Some of the groups talked about how they felt about examinations and grades. Resentment toward "grading on the curve" was demonstrated.

These students were chosen for the discussion groups from student leaders and high-ranking students in a large high school. Membership was restricted to 15 in each group. Boys' and girls' groups met in joint sessions every third week and separately for other weekly meetings.

The leader was a psychiatrist who gave one afternoon a week to the project. He defined feeling but occasionally injected a provocative question. Sometimes he asked, "Is this true of all of you?" When pressed

for an answer, he replied, "I may not have the answer. Let's ask the others." Or, "Maybe we haven't enough information. Maybe we ought to read something."

When discussion lagged, he might ask, "What do you want to talk about now?" If there were no suggestions, he might say, "Some of the other groups have been talking about. . . . Would you like to talk about it?" Or, "Maybe we have gone over this too much. Maybe it isn't interesting any more. What would you like to talk about?"

Student response to the project was positive. After the beginning was made among student leaders, voluntary membership was encouraged. Groups were kept small to encourage participation and group cohesiveness. A waiting list developed. While mixed-group sessions were productive, they were more awkward and tense than separate meetings. Girls were inclined to be either retiring or, occasionally, excessively aggressive.

There are obvious reasons why teachers might shy away from the discussion of such subjects in the classroom or even in the home room. First, parents and patrons of the school might disapprove. Second, the teacher might feel unable to handle such a discussion. Teachers often feel inadequate and insecure unless they can structure the situation. They feel they should have all the answers. For this reason they avoid emotionally charged and controversial questions. As a result many problems which are vitally important to students are never treated. Children are taught monopolar reactions to such concepts as democracy. Such concepts are not explored and thus no understanding is developed.

The Large Group

We have spoken of the technique of reflecting group feelings and the feelings of members of the group. Usually the leader waits for the feeling to be manifested. However, sometimes the leader or speaker can anticipate how a group will be likely to feel and incorporate a suitable response in his remarks.

Bixler (25) used this technique while addressing a large group of war wives. He had been counseling wives of servicemen who were overseas, and he was acquainted with their feelings of apprehension, insecurity, loneliness, and frustration and other problems resulting from family separation, the ambiguous social position of a married woman without her husband, the responsibilities of trying to rear children without their father. He began his talk by defining their feelings. The attention of the audience, their questions and remarks showed their grateful response to his understanding.

Morale among a group of 80 foreign educators attending an institute was apparently improved following reflection of their feelings by one of

their leaders. The institute appeared to be getting off to a very bad start. Rumors were circulated that some of the participants were on the verge of withdrawing. Two "pep talks" from staff members elicited no response. A third staff member addressed these remarks to the audience:

I think I know how you feel. I have been told that you have not received your subsistence checks and that some of you are hungry. Arrangements for this institute were made by government officials and the administrators of your universities. Some of you resent the fact that you were sent here without having had a chance to express willingness or unwillingness to attend. Some of you do not read English readily, and those materials which have not been translated are difficult for you. You feel embarrassed and resentful when you are obliged to come to class unprepared. Under these circumstances, of course, the benches seem hard and the classroom seems cold and the institute appears remote from your needs.

Following translation by the interpreter, there were murmurs of assent and applause from the audience. The chairman of the staff acknowledged the remarks by saying that a very cloudy situation had been clarified and that the institute might be expected to proceed with new spirit. This seemed to be the turning point. Morale mounted during the remaining months of the project, and at no point was there any apparent danger of breakdown. Having their feelings recognized and understood made it possible for the participants to change their attitudes.

The feeling of the group toward a controversial issue can also be defined, "This subject makes you uncomfortable," "You feel that the standards by which you have lived are threatened," "You feel this discussion is out of place in a church," "This offends you," "You feel we cannot understand your point of view." If the members can come to understand their emotionalized attitudes, they are in a position to retrace the experiences which led to prejudices and to bring reason and facts to bear on the issue. Until people feel they are understood they are inclined to repeat their opinions and explain their attitudes. When their feelings are recognized, they are enabled to absorb new information and make use of it.

Group Psychotherapy

Participants in group discussion of acute personal problems understand when they join the group that their purpose is to work together toward a solution of their personal problems and toward a clarification of values and objectives. People who join such a group are often those who have discovered that life has lost its savor and meaning and who have found discrepancies between aspiration and achievement.

Role of the Leader. Many of the principles of nondirective counseling operate in the therapist's relationship to the members. The therapist must

genuinely accept the members and believe in their potentials for solving their problems. He is committed to the principle that the individual can work out his own value system and that it is his right to determine his own way of life. The therapist refrains from injecting his own values into the conversations. He reflects and clarifies feelings which are expressed to him and at times those expressed in exchanges between members.

"Experience in individual client-centered therapy seems to be the best preparation for doing group-centered therapy," according to Rogers (188:305). He points out that the group situation makes new demands on the therapist: "He now must respond sensitively to six people instead of one; he must be able to recognize and handle objectively the cross currents of feelings that develop within the group; he must clarify his own feelings toward the several members of the group, in order that he may respond to each member with consistent understanding."

The research of Telschow (226) indicates that restatement of content of the member's remarks, together with acceptance of feeling, is productive. Members who gain most from the experience apparently are those to whom the therapist responds with nondirective statements.

The leader finds he must strike a balance between domination and withdrawing. In order to permit the maximum freedom of discussion, he may wait after a member's remark to see if another member wishes to respond to it, but he cannot let an important feeling go unrecognized. If the leader withdraws too much from the group, discord may develop among the members or they may feel rejected.

The beginning sessions differ in the rapidity with which the members get started. Sometimes the members are awkward and tense, but sometimes they plunge in at once. The therapist helps them to get acquainted with one another, encourages them to tell something about themselves, but does not try to hurry the discussion. He may say that they know the purposes of the group and that the group can develop and follow its own leads.

Pattern of Response. As in the counseling interview, negative feelings may be expressed early in the sessions and may increase during several of the early sessions before they begin to decline. The therapist needs to reflect them and to be alert to the first signs of positive reactions. Peres (168:159ff.) found that the peak of negative feelings was reached shortly after the mid-point of a series of nine sessions.

Structure and Organization. Groups usually meet once or twice a week for an hour or a little longer, depending on how far the discussion has progressed at the end of the hour and how the members feel about continuing the discussion. The decision to terminate the meetings can be left to the group.

The group usually numbers from six to ten people. It should be large enough to provide for personal interaction, but not so large that the processes are slowed down or that some will remain on the outer periphery, uninvolved in the process. Meetings should be held in a room which can be free from interruption and in which the members feel privacy will be ensured. The discussion will probably develop most productively if the members can face each other around a circle or a table.

With regard to the composition of the group, it is difficult to establish rules for selection. Members do not need to be similar in temperament or abilities or have similar problems, but adolescents are not usually mixed with adults. One criterion would be whether or not the individual wished to become a member. If membership is entirely voluntary, the prognosis might be more favorable than if any persuasion is used.

The group leader must use his own judgment as to whether a given member could profit and whether or not he might promote or delay the progress of the group. Gains can be inhibited, Rogers (188:313) says, "by disturbed but psychologically sophisticated persons who can use their knowledge of psychodynamics cruelly on others."

Extremely aggressive persons can destroy group direction and unity. Prodding or challenging statements exchanged between members of the group arrest progress. Such responses as "Why did you do that?" "What difference does it make?" "You must have done that because you hated her," "You shouldn't have done that" provoke antagonism and defensiveness. Responses to purely intellectual statements are likewise unproductive. It might be well, as Rogers (188: 314) suggests, not to include in the same group people who are in close daily contact with each other outside the group.

"Successful groupings have included both sexes, siblings and wide age ranges," according to Axline (14:270). She believes, "An alert therapist, constantly evaluating the behavior of the groups, should be able to spot any factor that seems to be harmful to a particular group and to make the necessary adjustment, either by forming another group to take care of any misfit or by transferring the misfit individual to another group that would be more suitable."

Group therapy has been employed with various types and ages of people. Slavson (211) describes work with delinquents and predelinquents. Rogers (188:279) mentions its use with unhappy children, children who could not learn to read, boys from a Harlem gang, among others. Axline (14:211ff.) used group therapy with maladjusted preschool and with elementary school children and with handicapped children who had been placed in a foster home.

Success in adult work is described by Powell (171:41ff.):

Truly startling work in psychotherapy is being done by group means, ranging from the voluntary Alcoholics Anonymous to out-patient and hospitalized groups. Adult schizophrenics, speechless from birth and thereby inaccessible to analysis, have responded to group experience in some cases by beginning verbal communication. Even the unintended effects of group relations among patients in common wards are being studied as significant for their recovery.

Advantages. The individual's progress during psychotherapy can be facilitated by participation in a therapy group. During group therapy he sees himself in his social context, whereas in the counseling interview he is in an isolated and protected atmosphere. Axline (14:26) says, "The group experience injects into therapy a very realistic element because the child lives in the world with other children and must consider the reactions of others and must develop a consideration of other individuals' feelings." She believes that in cases "where the child's problems are centered around social adjustments, group therapy may be more helpful than individual treatment." Rogers (188:279) suggests that "in the neglected field of therapy for the normal person with debilitating situation conflicts, group therapy appears to offer advantages over individual therapy." He points out the need for research on the subject.

Advantages in group-centered therapy are suggested by Pederson-Krag (211:224), who comments that while the counselor is seen in a role of benign tolerance, the other members of the group represent society. Thus the members can experience acceptance by the counselor without being removed from the world of reality.

Another advantage is that while the immediate problem of the individual may differ from those of other members, he recognizes in other people some of the same anxieties, feelings of insecurity, and needs that he finds in himself. The process of understanding others helps him to understand himself. The experience of giving as well as receiving help can be therapeutic. Members of the group commonly grow to accept each other, and the feeling of mutual acceptance and respect is a salutory factor. The same gains which accrue from working together in any group toward a common goal can be experienced in this group which is exploring together the possibilities for a satisfying life. Many people who join a therapy group have suffered from rejection by people who are important to them. In the group, they may form closer ties than previously have been possible. Rogers (188:287) says that being understood and accepted by several people who are honestly sharing their feelings in a joint search for a more satisfying life is a potent experience.

Sometimes people find they can talk more readily to fellow sufferers than to a therapist. The effect of group membership on the retiring individual is mentioned by Klapman (110): "Intragroup resistances, or resistances

to members of the group will lessen when one patient brings forth material which another tries to hide. As therapy progresses, the less active members are drawn into the current of the class work, a fact which will stimulate group transferences."

Slavson (211:218) refers to insights resulting when individuals find that their problems are similar to those of others. People who feel rejected are often comforted when they realize that many other people feel equally "out-of-group." While immediate problems may range from classroom failure to divorce, the over-all problem is often one of interpersonal relations which applies to all or nearly all members. A basic assumption stated by Powell (171:41ff.) is that individuals may be freed even from extremes of irrational privacy by having a share in the dynamic currents of influence within a group with a common purpose.

According to Powell:

Identification with the thinking process of a continuous group does three things for the individual. . . . Its revelation of common experiences and feelings lessens the anxiety arising from felt isolation. . . . Second, it establishes a sort of center of objective gravity around which he can find his own orbit. He is free to disagree with the group; but as a member his right to disagree is itself subject to standards developed out of the group's own process and purpose: his freedom—as in a democracy—is itself governed by the terms of his membership in the group. Third, the group represents society personified in microcosm [171:42].

Although there is only scanty research on the results of group therapy, there are some encouraging reports on its effectiveness. Members of a therapy group reported three months after the conclusion of therapy that they had taken positive actions as a result of the experience and that they had made significant changes in attitude and behavior, carrying over into fields which had not been discussed. They had apparently made gains toward handling specific problems and conflicts and toward greater acceptance of self and willingness to be oneself. Statements indicating understanding, insight, plans, and actions increased during therapy (168:159ff.).

Eight out of sixteen participants in a therapy group made clear gains, according to the opinions of three leaders. Their judgments were corroborated by objective measures (188:318).

Another possible advantage is mentioned tentatively. The counseling of a given client may require weekly or even daily attention of the therapist over a long period of time. If progress of the individual toward adjustment can be accelerated by group therapy, the services of psychologists, counselors, and psychiatrists can be made available to more people than can

now be treated by the limited number of trained personnel. If help can be given to six or eight people in a group instead of to one client in a counseling interview the counselor's contribution is thus multiplied.

It may seem unlikely to the reader that discussions of diverse personal problems could ever weld a group together. Unity is not present at the outset, but if a climate of mutual acceptance is created, a feeling of direction and cohesiveness will grow. The therapist can promote this condition by his attitudes and responses.

An interesting phenomenon of group therapy is that the members usually demonstrate increasing understanding and concern for their fellow members. Members often begin to respond to each other with such statements as "I've had that same experience, too" or "When that happened to you, did you have the same feeling that I had when . . ." (188:291). In later sessions, members are inclined to define each other's feelings, showing that they feel with the speaker, "You tried not to resent it, but you couldn't help it."

Gorlow (83) believes that the people who gained the most from therapy were also those who most frequently employed in their responses to each other the kinds of therapist statements believed to be most healing. There are several possible explanations. Helping others may be beneficial to the helper, improvement in an individual may put him in a position to be more helpful to others, or the two factors may be interactive.

It is possible that the experience of being accepted could make a person sufficiently secure to permit him to be generous in his understanding of others. It has been believed for a long time that general insecurity contributes to scapegoatism and intolerance of minority groups.

Some of the most bigoted, selfish, intolerant people are found among those who are themselves insecure. The more fortunate members of a deprived race are often willing to make scapegoats of other members. In an economically unstable nation or in one which lacks prestige, minority groups become scapegoats. Through experiencing security in the group situation and through retracing the emotional background for prejudice, perhaps individuals can make a start toward solving this problem, found in every community and in every nation.

On this subject, Rogers (188:377) says:

In short, the members of a group whose leadership has been essentially group-centered seem to become more and more like the group-centered leader in their attitudes and behavior toward others. If further research substantiates this clinical observation, we can point to this as probably the most significant contribution of the group-centered leader to the group. It is significant because of its implications for improving human relations, for reducing misunderstandings between individuals by facilitating communication between them. If it is true that group-

centered leadership releases tendencies to relate with others on a more accepting and understanding basis, might it not be a hopeful beginning in effecting more cooperative behavior between individuals, more effective decision-making in groups, more respect for the worth of every member of the group, more willingness to listen to other points of view? Could it mean that group-centered leadership would reduce misunderstandings and hostility between labor and management as they work together on joint committees, reduce intolerance among members of a high school class, alleviate jealousies and petty conflicts between members of a college faculty or between employees in an office—perhaps even promote shared understandings between representatives of unfriendly nations?

We are told that while the individual is completely self-centered at birth, he gradually develops identification with the family, later with the community, and at maturity with the world community. Sometimes his development is arrested at an intermediate stage and he remains identified with a fragment of the population, a protector of sectional interests above the welfare of the larger group of which it is a part. Through a small therapy group or other group-centered discussion or a self-exploratory group, he may be able to grow toward maturity and identification with society.

Role-playing

Role-playing or psychodrama is being increasingly employed in classrooms, labor-management conferences, leadership training programs, and therapy groups. The shy high school student helps to dramatize a coke-date scene. If he feels successful, he gains confidence. After several such experiences, he may be able to be successful in a real social situation. On the other hand, if he fails in the little drama, the experience is not so painful or damaging as a real-life failure. During the role-playing, he is not threatened by impending failure or punishment, and thus the situation is not so overpowering.

The mental patient may reconstruct a scene from his childhood. The convalescent rehearses for his new role after he will leave the hospital. He applies for a job, prepares for his journey home on busses and trains, anticipates the details of his arrival.

The grade school child plays out the role of a patient with a stiff knee and learns how the crippled classmate feels. He dramatizes the beginning days of the following year and prepares for a new experience. The preschool child gets ready for a birthday party by acting the part of the host.

In the role of the teacher, the rebellious high school student feels as she does. Arguing the cause of the South, the confirmed Yankee gains insights into emotional factors in the Civil War. As Ben Franklin or Winston Churchill, the pupil lives a bit of history. As himself, he explores

effective techniques in interpersonal relations or gets insights into his own attitudes and behavior. Role-playing requires active participation and makes otherwise abstract situations real to the students.

It would be a good idea for the counselor to try out role-playing on an average group before experimenting with the maladjusted. Training in the method is, of course, desirable. It is most useful when faulty learning has taken place and when the leader believes that the student is emotionally able to take on new learning.

A small group is desirable. Sometimes the leader prepares for a session by training teachers or class members to take supporting roles.

Role-playing in the classroom is discussed in the December, 1947, issue of *Sociatry*. The technique is suggested for teachers' meetings by Mildred Fenner (68:19ff.). Bradford and Lippitt (31) describe gratifying results of the methods in training industrial supervisors.

An audience of 80 teachers and parents were successfully involved in discussion by means of role-playing following the showing of the film *The Feeling of Rejection* (13). The film traces the causes of emotional conflict in a retiring, unhappy adult to childhood experiences in which the child learned to conform rather than lose the approval of her parents.

The leader distributed questionnaires to members of the audience, asking with which character in the film they had identified. When the questionnaires had been collected, the leader conducted a short discussion evaluating the mood of the audience.

Then he asked for volunteers to play roles in a sequel to the film, requesting that people volunteer for roles with which they had felt identified while seeing the picture. He announced that the girl's problem had been explained to the family and they had decided to do something about it. He asked for volunteers to play a scene accordingly. The scene was followed by discussion in which the audience participated actively. Then he asked the players to play the scene over, assuming that only the girl change her behavior. Discussion followed. Some of the participants reported gains in insights into their own behavior and that of their associates.

A civil rights committee used this technique in one of their meetings to explore the feelings of Negroes and whites in their relationships with each other. On this occasion, Negroes volunteered to play roles of employers, employment-bureau officers, restaurant owners and merchants, while whites played the roles of Negroes seeking employment and making purchases.

Role-playing has been used profitably with a group of adults who wished to explore administrative relationships. Scenes were planned and played dramatizing employee-employer relationships, parent-child relationships, and teacher-pupil relationships.

Eight students who participated weekly in a role-playing group reported improvement in emotional adjustments and interpersonal relations. Sociometric studies demonstrated improved relationships among members of the group. Problems arising spontaneously from the group were acted out with direction and interpretations by a psychologist. Typical problems were home conflict, dating, interviewing a prospective employer (271).

Role-playing can provide an opportunity for the individual to react spontaneously to a situation. In some cases it is possible to arrange a scene whereby the player can act himself, as he really is, more truly than he does in daily life. Parents often restrain their natural impulses to show affection to their children. Overdependable people drive themselves to fulfill the expectations of families and associates. Excessively dependent people suppress their inclinations toward independence. Habitually meek people conceal their aggressions to make their behavior conform to the pictures which they have of themselves and which they believe others to have. Through role-playing they may gain insights into their behavior and motivations.

Spontaneity, an important factor in creativeness, is often repressed by the various home and school influences which operate to make individuals conform to the same mold. The result may be a constricted personality and a loss to society of the creative productivity which lies latent in the overinhibited individual.

Gardner Murphy (151:474*ff*.) explains:

The child's first need is conceived to be the need for sociality, the need to respond to others and to be responded to by them. This means that for each individual, the deepest, most naive impulses are love and hate, and that therefore the first task of the educator or psychiatrist is to allow the individual through spontaneous selection of his own social world, to define the influences which enable love rather than hate to serve as organizing principles, or to direct and channel hate into the form of hating things that threaten humanity.

He speaks of the spontaneity training of J. L. Moreno, through which people learn upon the stage "to throw themselves spontaneously into the roles that fulfill them as persons—to be themselves, to reveal an individuality which life had taught them to conceal."

Summary

Through group discussion under trained leadership and in a climate of acceptance and understanding, people can explore urgent problems which are seldom discussed elsewhere, experience acceptance and security, define values, become more understanding of themselves and others, and make progress toward self-directiveness and maturity. The therapist

helps to establish the pattern of acceptance and mutual respect. This function of the leader is the principal one which distinguishes him from others in the group. He defines and clarifies feelings and encourages participation.

Among the advantages of group therapy are:

1. The group represents society to the individual.
    a. Membership in the miniature society helps the individual to progress from self-absorption to concern for others and toward identification with the group.
    b. The individual comes to accept group standards.
    c. He can coexperience success with other group members.
2. The individual finds that others have similar problems and feels less alone in his problems.

The composition of the group is loosely defined. People of various ages and types of problems can be included in the same group. Two criteria can be established:

1. The member should make the decision himself that he wants to be included.
2. Any member who definitely inhibits the progress of the group should not be included.

The leader who is sensitive to interpersonal relationships within the group can identify and relocate a member who is unable to develop acceptance for others and who thus destroys group unity.

Members of the therapy group commonly adopt the practice of reflecting each others' feelings. In group therapy and in self-exploratory groups the potentialities for an attack on problems of interpersonal conflict and human relations may be found.

Insights into self and others can be gained through role-playing. Repressed spontaneity and creativeness can be recovered. Love and hate can be channeled into productive activities. During role-playing, the learning process is relatively unhampered by fear of failure.

CHAPTER 7 *College Housing*

The average college student spends perhaps sixteen to twenty hours weekly in classroom or laboratory. A large percentage of the rest of his waking hours is spent in the place in which he lives. During his waking hours, he is learning all the time. Whether or not he learns skills and attitudes which will be useful to him depends upon the nature of his environment.

While the college is responsible in some respects for housing arrangements for students in private homes and rooming houses, the most fruitful possibilities for productive group-living experiences lie in the college-operated residence hall. The college dormitory may be merely a place to eat and sleep, or it may be a residence in the true sense of the word.

Standards for the operation of such halls range from minimum comfort to provision for experience in democratic citizenship. Attention to morals, orderly student behavior, the development of the social graces are more common than attention to learning to live harmoniously in a democratic community. Precautions to ensure solvency, rules regarding closing hours, dating, permission to spend the night or the week end away from the campus are secondary in importance to the functioning of dormitory life to promote the growth and maturity of the individual.

Objectives

After two weeks of reading and discussing, a group of experienced residence-hall counselors agreed on the following objective for group living in college housing units: "As residence hall staff members, our objective for group living is to create cooperatively with students a democratic environment in which each student, as he or she looks toward living as an adult in a democratic society, will have opportunity to increase in maturity." They agreed that two basic considerations in reaching their objectives were (1) the content of the activities or materials with which students work; and (2) the way in which the activities are administered.[1]

[1] Pennsylvania State College Workshop on Housing, summer, 1948.

According to the philosophy expressed in foregoing pages, the content should include matters in which students are vitally interested and which currently affect their lives. Methods of administration should be those which give students the maximum opportunity to take responsibility and to exercise initiative. Respect for the rights of others and attention to individual needs are implicit in the selection of means for arriving at the stated goal.

On the subject of dormitory administration, Helen Schleman, Dean of Women at Purdue University (200), refers to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which was passed by the General Assembly of the United Nations on December 10, 1948, without a dissenting vote. She states that if we are to be supporters of the underlying beliefs and principles of that document, we must make a conscious attempt to relate its tenets to our own activities, to the procedures which we follow in handling our everyday affairs, to the policies which govern our relationships with students, the faculty, and the community.

Pursuing the application of the declaration to everyday living, she quotes Article 5, "No one shall be subjected to torture or cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment." Although we are aware that this reference applies to concentration camps, physical violence, deliberate starvation of masses of people, we can think of instances where students suffered degrading experiences at the hands of authoritarian faculty members or house mothers, where threats, insinuation, accusation were employed to reinforce the assumption that the student is depraved or potentially so. Schleman says:

The only way that I have personally of giving my support to this Article of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is to see to it that, in my dealings with other people, I do not subject anyone to any kind of degrading treatment. I have got to remember, no matter how annoyed I may be, that the student I am dealing with is a human being and by sheer virtue of being a human being is entitled to have me act towards her or towards him in a spirit of good will.

I could go on and select other articles from the 30, but that you can do for yourself. I commend to you the reading and studying and applying of the entire document. If it is as important as the great many people feel that it is, and, if in a hundred years from now it becomes recognized as the most important document of civilization down to this time, the Atlantic Pact not excepted, I should hate to think that those of us in the university community passed it lightly by when it was born, that we didn't know an important document when we saw one. And finally, my question is, if we don't recognize it as important and apply it, *who will?*

Its application, it seems to me, demands the kind of emotional maturity, the kind of artistry in human relations in our parts, as adult leaders in our living units, that we hope our students will learn from their group living experience.

Among the specific objectives listed for the Kansas State College Housing Program (185) are the following:

1. To contribute to the development of politically responsible citizens through experiences in democratic group living
2. To contribute to the development of initiative and self-directiveness in the individual
3. To contribute to social adequacy through the practice of social skills
4. To provide an atmosphere conducive to study
5. To provide comfortable and sanitary living quarters, palatable food and adequate space for recreation

In his defense of dormitories, A. Lawrence Lowell (122:1), who became president of Harvard University in 1909, urged that everything within reason be done to develop undergraduates as people as well as students. Among his other wise sayings, Lowell reminds us, "Aristotle remarked that man is by nature a social animal; and it is in order to develop his powers as a social being that American colleges exist. The object of the undergraduate department is not to produce hermits, each imprisoned in the cell of his own intellectual pursuits, but men fitted to take their places in the community and live in contact with their fellow men."

It is toward this concept of dormitory life that we are moving today.

History

The history of the college dormitory throws some light on past failures to take advantage of its educational potentials.

Cowley (47) traces the history of student residential housing in Germany, France, England, and the United States from the twelfth century to the present day. Students at the University of Bologna, sometime during the twelfth century, began to withdraw from private homes and form their own living groups with managers elected from among the members. The plan spread to Paris and to Oxford.

In time, special hostels were endowed by charitable donors to provide residences for the poorer students. Eventually, the universities insisted on approving the principals or pedagogues elected by the students and later on nominating them. Subsequently, rules were enforced regarding moving from one "hospicium" to another and compulsory residence in "pedagogies." In the course of two centuries the houses which had been established by students on their own initiative had passed entirely into the hands of university authorities.

Of the difference between the American and British philosophies regarding student housing, Cowley has this to say:

At Oxford and Cambridge the residential colleges developed into highly significant educational agencies; in America dormitories during the nineteenth century

become little more than body shelters. The British have used their housing units to bring dons and students together not only for formal individual conferences upon their academic work, but also for social and intellectual intercourse. Kept small by design, the colleges have supplied the Empire with men at once splendidly trained intellectually and admirably cultivated socially.

While Oxford and Cambridge tutors were relieved of practically all disciplinary responsibilities during the eighteenth century, the American faculty member living in the dormitory became the student's natural enemy. "Circumstances made him a martinet and conscientiously he lived up to his responsibilities."

Interest in the German system of education which divorced academic pursuits from the student's private life led many American educators to frown on college-operated dormitories. Cowley says the American compromise gives students shelter (part of them at least) and varying degrees of social education, but as yet it remains considerably apart from the curricular life of the campus.

Principles

If the dormitory program is to be linked effectively with other aspects of college life, it should provide for

1. Communication between residence halls and the central governing body of the college and time for discussing matters of general college welfare

2. Communication between the residence-hall counselor and other divisions of campus life: academic advisers, clinical counselors, director of the social program, director of freshman orientation, testing bureau, health service, etc.

If it is to contribute to maturity and responsible citizenship, it should provide

1. Opportunities for individuals to take responsibility, to help decide on the rules by which they live, and to aid in maintaining them

2. Experience in democratic processes

If it is to contribute to the development of individual competency and personal adjustment, it should include counseling or appropriate referral for students who need help in study habits, finding a suitable curriculum, vocational choice, or understanding themselves and others.

These excerpts from a bulletin describing a residence-hall program for men emphasize the educational aspects of the program (137).

The University of Michigan insists . . . that the houses should be more than mere rooming and boarding houses. They recognize that, broadly conceived, education should include both formal instruction in the business of living and informal training in the enrichment of personality. A Michigan House Plan has, consequently, been developed which will give the student experience in communal living and assistance in expanding his education into those areas which

must be cultivated if he is *to become a citizen of the world.*—The President of the University.

It is our hope that residential life on the campus will be an affirmative influence in the educational experience of the student and thus a valuable adjunct to the educational processes carried on in classroom, laboratory, and library. It should provide opportunities for gracious companionship with books and with music and with ideas and, above all else, with people—with members of the faculty, with counselors, with fellow students. Education is more than a preparation for something; the process by which it is acquired is in itself an experience worth cultivating for all that it may offer in terms of the *enduring values by which men test the quality of their living.* It is our purpose to make residential life on the campus a valuable part of this experience.—The Provost of the University.

If we subscribe to the ideals expressed here—respect for human dignity, full participation, the goal of democratic citizenship—to be consistent we must extend these principles, this respect and understanding and courtesy, to people of all races. The discrepancy between principle and practice in this respect shames us before the other countries of the world, particularly as it exists in tax-supported institutions of learning. Training for democratic citizenship must include experience in getting along with people of all races and nationalities.

Means

Of major importance in carrying out the dormitory program according to these principles is the hall government. It can be a puppet government, an agent of the hall counselor or the dean of women, to secure order through conforming to established rules of the administration. Or it can be the agent of the student group it serves, carrying out their wishes, fulfilling their needs, and operating from the motivations of the group.

The democratic methods of group government, already discussed, apply to the dormitory government. It offers splendid opportunities for participation, discussion, study, group decision, and action.

Representatives of the halls should be permitted to meet with the student governing body and to serve on advisory boards and committees. Speakers from the student-faculty council, legislature, or governing unit and from the all-college social committee could be asked to meet with the hall members to explain legislation and issues before them.

Training in leadership and discussion of democratic methods would help the group to distribute responsibility and spread out participation. If respect for the individual is practiced, the possibility is there for every member to feel secure as a part of the group.

Communication between the residence-hall counselor and other divisions of college life could be ensured by meetings with personnel officers,

academic advisers and others, sharing orientation planning, training in the use of personnel records and counseling methods, etc. The services available to students and methods of referral should be made known to the residence-hall counselor. The residence-hall counselor will undoubtedly do some counseling herself, but she should be acquainted with the symptoms of maladjustment and know when to refer a student to a clinician for psychotherapy or to his academic adviser for help with educational problems. She is in a better position than any other staff member to observe symptoms which suggest educational problems or physical or emotional maladjustments and to make referrals to suitable agencies.

Conferences exclusively for hall counselors provide opportunities for discussing their particular problems and for exchanging ideas on their treatment. Occasional meetings with house mothers of fraternities and sororities could be productive.

Stephens College hall counselors met weekly at luncheon with a guidance counselor during the school term of 1937–1938 (269). They expressed a desire to learn more about the work of the clinical counselor. After discussion they agreed to make one case study each to present before the group. Each residence-hall counselor interviewed a student and sent her for testing if needed. The clinician assisted the hall counselor to interpret the test results and other data before she counseled the student. Anecdotes on the student's behavior was kept. Follow-up work was done by the hall counselor or by the clinician, if needed. The group discussed each case after it was presented.

A series of hall counselors' meetings at another college began with a brief talk on possible outcomes of such a series. The group was invited to make up its own agenda. Suggestions were submitted for discussion and a vote was taken as to the order in which the subjects should be studied. Among the subjects of interest to this group were: "How do you get the residents to feel like a group?" "What services are available to college students?" "How do you know when a student needs to be counseled?" "What can we do about the oversocialized student?" "What is the relationship of the residence-hall counselor to the general college program?" (271)

Means of accomplishing educational objectives are suggested in Schleman's statement (200):

We are accustomed to think of the educational offerings of the university in terms of actual courses offered in the various curricula of the university and described invitingly in the university catalog. Maybe we would all think about our programs in living units in more concretely educational terms if they were described in the same familiar educational lingo. Would it be useful to our thinking at all, for instance, to find tucked in alongside the description of English 30,

Chemistry I, Applied Design 7, and so forth in our university catalog something like this?

S.E. 1—a four-year course in elementary Social Education offered by the Department of Residence Halls—no prerequisites—an intensive, first-hand study of the fundamental principles underlying human behavior, with especial emphasis on effective technics of getting along with people. The course involves no scheduled lectures, but does involve daily laboratory experiments in analyzing the other fellow's point of view, accompanied by exercises and problems in mediation, conciliation, and compromise. It is designed to supplement so-called academic work such as the study of mathematics, English, and chemistry to the end that the university graduate may recognize himself as a social being with definite responsibilities to his fellow men. It runs concurrently with the course described immediately following.

I.E. and D. 1—a four-year course in Individual Education and Development, also offered by the Department of Residence Halls—no prerequisites—a practical course in the development of interests, tastes, personal habits and personality traits. Few specific lectures are scheduled but laboratory periods are extensive. Continuous opportunity is afforded the student for enlarging his range of interests through the use of readily available laboratory materials. Discrimination in taste is demonstrated and emphasized. Direct observations of personal habits and personality traits of oneself and those of a similar age group are made frequently. The course is designed to supplement so-called regular academic work to the end that the graduate of the university may find within himself the disciplined personal habits and pleasant traits of personality. These courses are taught by skilled specialists in personnel relations, institution management, dietetics and business management.

Opportunities to experience social adequacy can be arranged for almost every resident through the various social and governmental activities of the hall. The dinners, teas, dances give the students practice in the social graces. The social-usage discussion, the model etiquette dinner, the grooming clinic help to perfect the process. The fireside chats, leisure-time library, current-events hour are only a few of the possibilities for expanding the dormitory program.

The character of the Wisconsin residence-hall program is described by Dammon: [2]

Each house has its own particular organization, and we neither expect nor desire that our houses follow a definite organizational plan. We believe that the personal development of the students can best be accomplished by encouraging individualism among the houses. Each house in its way tries to be the best on the campus. As a result, each house develops a separate personality and has a distinctive character with certain boasts, certain trademarks, and special traditions

[2] Dammon, Arnold H., "Residence Halls for Students," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 254ff.

for its scholarship (incidentally all our houses have consistently been well above all other groups on the campus scholastically), another for its exceptionally well-rounded social program, and still another for its wide representation in campus activities. Competition exists among the houses in scholastic standing, in athletic contests, and in social affairs. Supremacy trophies are awarded for the various activities. Each house with its officers and its committees offers many opportunities for the individual members to engage in a variety of activities.

Possibilities for environmental therapy are suggested by Borreson: [3]

Currently only limited use is made of environmental manipulation as an aspect of therapy, and this is almost invariably phrased negatively. Removal from an adverse environment rather than positive educational manipulation is the rule of present practice.

The opportunities in the dormitory for involving shy people in suitable activities are discussed by Melva Lind (117:529ff.), assistant professor of French and director of the French language hall at Mount Holyoke College. She secured the cooperation of older residents in arranging functions for retiring people and distributing responsibilities in which they could feel successful. Opportunities of the hall counselor are thus described:

The dormitory counselor is in a position to observe from the opening days of college, those residents who may profit from preventive work in maladjustment. She may also meet the different members of the family informally, and gain unexpected clues revealing the causative factors of present insecurities or difficulties. Actual counseling work will be much facilitated by the spirit of camaraderie that can flourish in a house, as opposed to the more formal office contacts.

The Hall Counselor

The residence-hall counselor should be chosen first, in terms of warmth of personality and respect for the individual, and second for personnel training in understanding the human personality and the use of clinical data and democratic group methods. She should be regarded as a professional worker with education and academic rank equivalent to that of members of the teaching staff.

Lloyd-Jones's (118:14ff.) remarks on desirable qualifications for student personnel workers apply to the selection of residence-hall counselors:

If a successful program is to be developed it must have the direction of persons who possess natural ability for understanding sympathetically the needs of young people and for dealing in counseling situations with individuals of college age; of equal importance to the program is the leadership of persons who know how to deal with groups, and who can sense and understand group or-

[3] Borreson, B. J., "Student Housing as Personnel Work," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 243ff.

ganization and dynamics. The leaders must be able to think through social values and to help young people gain a genuine understanding of their own roles as members of small, well-knit social groups and of larger social groups. They must also help young people appreciate the desirability of mastering the finer techniques of behavior which facilitate social intercourse, as well as understand what it means to be citizens of a society that is organized as a democracy.

In contacts with house officers, leaders, and members, the hall counselors help to establish a pattern either of mutual respect between residents or of disregard for individual dignity and worth. They have opportunities to demonstrate democratic methods of leadership. They can help to train the student leaders in leadership techniques and to instill in them attitudes which will pervade the hall. The attitudes of the counselor have a profound effect on the climate of the hall.

The men's halls at the University of Wisconsin are staffed with young graduate students, according to Dammon.[4] The Fellow, as he is called, is described as host, counselor, and friend to the men. He is chosen by the residence-halls faculty committee for qualities of character, leadership, culture, and special abilities. He is considered a teacher in the true sense and thus is given academic rank.

"The Fellow is expected to guide the house," according to Dammon, "but not to dominate it and full responsibility is placed on the students. They plan and execute the program and look only to the Fellow for guidance."

Three-day conferences are held each spring and fall to acquaint the Fellows with the program, with aims and principles, functioning of the business office, personnel policies, and room assignments. A second meeting is scheduled for acquainting them with available health, psychiatric, counseling, remedial, and recreational services. Another session is given over to student government and a final session is arranged to deal with counseling and details of house operation. Weekly dinner meetings provide for an exchange of ideas between the Fellows and for additional training. Faculty members are sometimes invited to these dinners to give their views and to learn about the house programs. Conferences between individual Fellows and administrators are also arranged.

It is important to note that the training program makes use of the opinions and ideas of the Fellows, so that it is not a one-way flow with the Fellows on the receiving end only. The Wisconsin program has expanded continually over a period of twenty years, and the program initiated in the men's halls was adopted in the women's halls in 1940.

[4] Dammon, Arnold H., "Residence Halls for Students," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 254ff.

Sifferd's (210) study of residence-hall counseling in 215 American colleges and universities in 1947 included opinions on desirable qualifications of residence-hall counselors. Questionnaires returned totaled 125, and he received 90 additional letters describing hall programs. Out of 127 responses 90 indicated that the hall counselors should be well acquainted with the administration of the university; 96 indicated that they should be well acquainted with extra-class activities of the campus.

Fifty-two schools indicated they should be especially trained for counseling work. With regard to the counselor's duties, 107 checked the item "Help residents to develop ability for making rational constructive adjustments for themselves"; 88 checked "Help stimulate the individual resident's social life"; 84 checked "Help activate residence hall social activities."

The use of records by the residence-hall counselor was reported as follows:

	Number of Schools Using These Records
Personal information sheet	58
Anecdotal record	30
Rating or appraisal scale	34
Others	20

(We should like to suggest the extensive use of the student's cumulative records, test data, and admissions records.)

Areas of counseling in which the residence-hall counselor was reported to assume responsibility are listed according to the frequency with which they were checked: effective study habits, 84; house organization, 84; social activities, 83; personal appearance, speech, manners, 76; student government, 66; intramural activities, 59. Counseling on vocational choice was checked by 39 schools as a part of the hall counselor's work.

Favorable attitudes of residents toward dormitory counseling were reported by 71 schools. No schools reported an unfavorable attitude toward the counseling program in the dormitories, but a number qualified their answers with such comments as "varies greatly, favorable on the whole, favorable if the counseling is good."

The Physical Plant

The physical surroundings have a good deal to do with the successful operation of a residence hall. Adequate closet space, good light for study, room for recreation and entertaining friends are as important as cleanliness, comfortable beds, and nourishing food. When rooms are crowded and little space is provided for leisure-time activities, tensions grow and discipline problems develop. Attractive furnishings and decoration would

seem to be desirable. When new equipment is proposed, the residents appreciate being permitted to submit their recommendations.

Physical conditions conducive to good study habits, personal convenience, comfort, and cleanliness stimulate standards of good taste, according to Warren (251:75ff.). The influence of attractive, convenient surroundings is emphasized by Lloyd-Jones (118):

> The architectural arrangements that determine how students shall be grouped in their more intimate living, the standards of good taste and beauty to which students are accustomed in the student residences, the kind of residence hall heads who are appointed and the standards of social living which they encourage in the residences, the facilities which the residences afford for use of leisure hours as well as for the comfort and entertainment of guests, the kinds of routine that are encouraged—all of these have a most effective relation to the social development of students.

Fiscal Policy

"Trends have been away from depending on gifts [for financing the building of dormitories] and toward the use of college capital funds for dormitory construction," according to a study of 66 college housing programs reported in the 1945 *Association of American Colleges Bulletin* (214:480ff.). While all except one answer to questionnaires indicated that college officials believed investments in *dormitories were justified for other than financial reasons,* nearly two-thirds of the 182 dormitories were said to pay at least their own way and a small profit in addition.

Newer dormitories were consistently reported to be more profitable. The profitableness of dormitories apparently increased with size. Those with an average of 35 residents regularly lost money. Those averaging 123 residents made profits. (Groups as large as 123 residents should be divided for discussion purposes and should have more than one residence-hall counselor.) "The profit of dormitories appears to have increased with the rate charged per week up to a maximum of $2.62 per week . . . profits from dormitories charging an average of $2.62 per week were greater than from dormitories charging an average of $2.76 per week." Colleges requiring students to live in college housing units made higher profits than those who did not.

While businesslike methods of operating the dormitory are desirable, they are secondary to the educational program. Efficiency need not be sacrificed in the interest of education, but courtesy and respect for the residents can be demonstrated in business relations. The directors of the residence halls should be trained personnel workers, devoting most of their time to student personnel work, but it seems desirable that they should

have assistant counselors trained in business methods, who could work with the comptroller. Housing directors *must* be personnel-trained.

Less difficulty is experienced in the collection of rents and the maintaining of equipment when the needs of the students are being met and when they are treated as responsible people than when business aspects of the hall supersede educational aspects. Thus the climate of the hall can contribute to the administrative end of solvency.

The American Council on Education subcommittee on student personnel work in the postwar college states (10:71ff.): "The assignment of students to housing units, the selection and training of house supervisors and the development of educational and social programs within the housing units are clearly responsibilities of the personnel worker."

The subcommittee gives a warning that fiscal control of dormitory facilities should not overbalance the educational control. Joint planning and operation by the personnel administrator and the business manager are recommended, providing educational ends are foremost.

Organization

If living in a college-operated residence hall is to be an educational experience, it seems logical that the hall counselors be members of the staff of the dean of students or the director of student personnel and responsible to him through the housing director, deans of men and women, or the men's and women's head counselors. Sifferd (210) reported that 37 schools submitted charts showing the flow of control and its connection with the university administration. Two of the representative charts are reproduced as Figs. 1 and 2. The relationship of the housing director to the
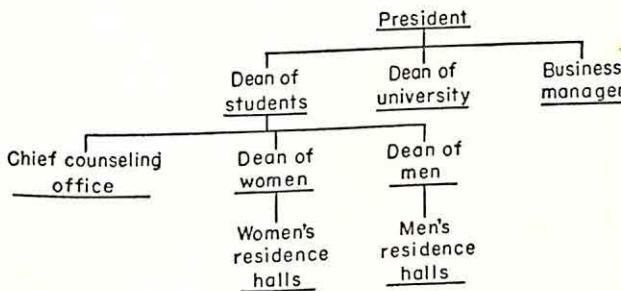
Fig. 1. Administrative structure of college housing program for an enrollment of 5,000 to 10,000 students (210).

residence-hall program is shown in Fig. 3. The interrelationships between the residence-hall counselor and other student personnel services are illustrated in Fig. 4. The internal organization of the residence hall is suggested by Fig. 5.
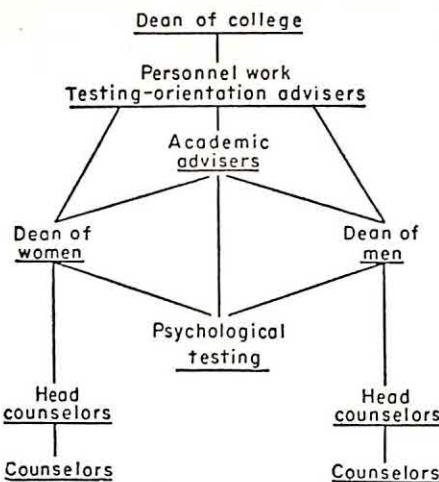
FIG. 2. Administrative structure of college housing program for an enrollment of 1,000 to 2,500 students (210).
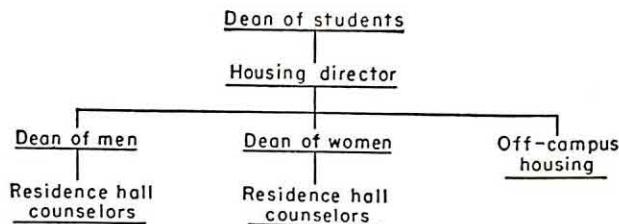
FIG. 3. Administrative structure of housing program in a large university might include a housing director, as shown here. Presumably, he would be personnel-trained.
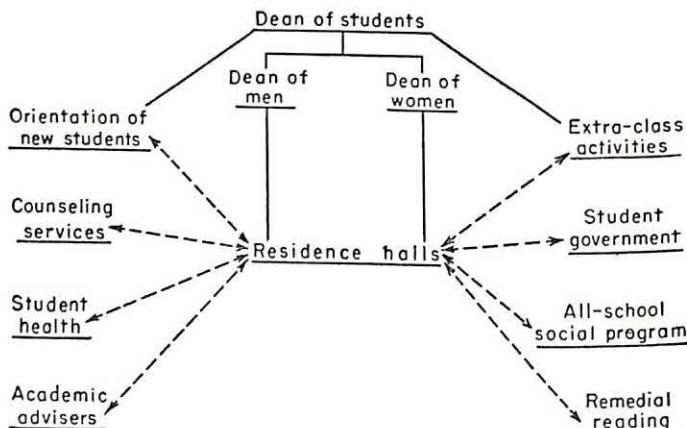
FIG. 4. Relationship of the residence-hall counselor to the student personnel program.

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              Director
                 of
           residence hall
                  |
     ┌────────────┼────────────┐
  Assistant    Housekeeper    Dietician
 in charge of
   records
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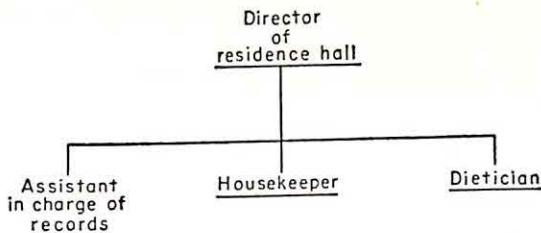
Fig. 5. Internal organization of residence hall.

In answer to Sifferd's question, "Is this program [counseling in dormitory] connected with your Student Personnel Office?" 78 schools out of 108 answered, "Yes."

Sifferd comments (210):

It would appear from analyzing the latter part of the question that the concept of a Student Personnel Office varies from campus to campus. To some schools, such an office is one which is prepared to help the student with problems ranging from psychological and personality maladjustments to that of selecting the curriculum in which the individual may seem to have the most chances for success. To other schools, the term Student Personnel Office seems to mean almost any office on the campus which deals with students, for in answering the above question, every answer, with the exception of one, indicated such a person or agency supervising the counseling program rather than telling how the program is connected with the Student Personnel Office, if such is in existence on the campus.

A trend toward integrating the dormitory program into the personnel program was suggested by the results of a study of housing practices in 1948.

A letter from a residence counselor at Stephens College contains the following information regarding their organization:

The personnel program is being reorganized under a dean of student personnel. Eight residence counselors representing halls of various sizes and halls for both first and second year students form a policy committee, the chairman of which is administratively responsible to the dean of student personnel. The business office has no direct relationship with the residence hall program. Financial matters are handled directly with the students by the business office. The emphasis is upon counseling in the residence halls. Counselors are trained personnel workers. . . . We believe that the residence halls provide valuable educational opportunities for every student. These can be utilized to the fullest extent only if they are coordinated with other personnel agencies on the campus.

A response from the dean of students at Northwestern University stated that the dormitory program was under the direction of the dean of students who was administratively responsible to the vice-president and the dean

of faculties. Plans for reorganization to incorporate the housing program as a permanent part of the student personnel program were reported by the universities of Denver and Montana.

The existence of housing boards and committees was reported by some universities. The director of housing at Colorado A. and M. College described a housing policy committee composed of the director of student personnel, director of housing, four faculty members, and a student appointed by the veterans' organization. An advisory board composed of the dean of women, the dean of men, a representative of the student personnel bureau, the health officer, and persons selected from the teaching staff was reported by the director of housing at the University of Illinois. The program was reported to be under the direction of the director of housing, who was responsible to the dean of students.

Role of the Dean of Students

The dean of students draws the various parts of the program together. He is responsible for helping the hall counselor to communicate with other staff members, for arranging meetings, and for channeling information. In the beginning stages of organizing hall counselors' meetings, he may wish to ask them if they would care to participate in group discussions on their work. Considerable freedom of decision should be given to the group. However, he is responsible for the initial move.

With other members of the staff, he helps to choose the hall counselors, to define functions, and to evaluate their achievements. He can help them become acquainted with the available services and facilities of the college and with the data which they will find in the students' record folders, in counseling and testing offices, admissions and registrar's offices, etc. The attitudes of the dean of students (either critical or accepting) toward the hall counselors will doubtless be reflected in their work with students.

Assignment of Students to Halls

Suggestions for assignment practices are made by Borreson.[5] He says:

At present the Student Housing Bureau [University of Minnesota] is one of the first agencies where person-to-person contact between the personnel worker and the student or parent takes place. The size of the university and the present accelerated pace in all its activities are often equated with the term impersonal in the minds of parents and students. We have found that the tension which naturally accompanies the registration process and anticipating housing difficulties may be relieved by restructuring the university setting in a more personal

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[5] Borreson, B. J., "Student Housing as Personnel Work," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 247ff.

light. At the beginning of the academic year this orientation process is one of the major phases of the interview.

In other words, the initial contact of the student with the university can be personalized to make the adjustment of the student to the college as easy as possible. The first interview can influence the student's attitude toward the college and contribute to a feeling of security. These observations imply that the interviewer should be acquainted with personnel methods and interviewing techniques as well as with available housing facilities.

Special attention to the placement of psychologically and physically handicapped students and foreign students is described by Borreson.

Size of the Hall Counselor's Student Group

Small residence halls are recommended by Arnold H. Dammon [6] of the University of Wisconsin.

We believe that small houses, even though they be part of a larger hall or quadrangle, encourage a group feeling and develop a spirit of camaraderie. We have houses in which the number of residents ranges from thirty-five to eighty, with the majority averaging from forty to fifty. The number we consider most effective from the standpoint of organization and program is approximately fifty students.

Sifferd reports that the average number of residents per counselor in 86 colleges and universities was 42 (210).

Off-campus Housing

A personnel approach to off-campus housing at the University of Minnesota is discussed by Borreson.[7] Four full-time professional social workers are employed, and each is assigned a geographic district where householders and student roomers are her clients. In-service training is given the workers, with special attention to the extremes in educational, cultural, and socioeconomic backgrounds which may be found among the clients.

Particular attention is paid to the householder. The student housing bureau keeps permanent case histories of the householders as well as housing records on students. Reference to the case history often helps the housing office to make a suitable placement of a handicapped student

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[6] Dammon, Arnold H., "Residence Halls for Students," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 254.

[7] Borreson, B. J., "Student Housing as Personnel Work," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 245.

or to clear up a misunderstanding with a student against whom a complaint has been lodged.

Students are required to live in approved houses. Social workers rate each house and householder following an interview in the home, on the basis of a 150-item rooming-house rating scale. If the total score falls within the approved range, an inspection of physical facilities is made by the health service. These evaluations and ratings are posted to the housing information cards used by the interviewers in matching placement with need.

In conducting an interview with a new householder, the field workers outline the part to be played by the householder in the over-all personnel program. Personnel resources and social opportunities are summarized and methods described for securing student cooperation and identifying social isolates. Subsequent interviews include discussion of specific student problems noted by the householder.

Monthly lectures and discussions among householders also deal with personnel problems and available university services. A newsletter, issued once a month, explains policies and contains local gossip and the designation of an outstanding house of the month.

Attention to off-campus housing seems important when the proportion of college and university students who depend on these facilities is considered. According to Borreson, 50 per cent of one year's discipline problems at the University of Minnesota arose in rooming houses. He calls attention to the relative neglect of the students thus housed with regard to inclusion in government and social activities.

Student Counselors

The program may at times include student counselors selected from among upper-class students to assist in the orientation of freshman residents to the dormitory program. Selection may be made on the basis of tested and stated interest in student government and in understanding people and on hall counselors' observations.

Training in group-discussion methods and other appropriate techniques may be given either informally or as class work. Student counselors at Kansas State College receive two hours of credit for the course on guidance of freshmen, and give six hours weekly to the program.

House Rules

The way in which students might be involved in establishing suitable house rules can be illustrated by the following incident. Dissatisfaction arose on one campus regarding the rule governing overnight absence from the hall. Many violations were reported. The dean of students dis-

cussed the problem with hall leaders and sorority officers. They agreed to send out questionnaires to the parents of 385 single women students, about one-third of the single women enrolled in the college. Returns indicated that 71 per cent of the parents believed their daughters were sufficiently mature to make their own decisions; 75 per cent were willing to trust their daughters' judgment as to the number of times they should return to the hall after 1:00 A.M. Only 10 per cent preferred to give special written permission and only 5 per cent stated they were unwilling to trust their daughters' judgment.

Rules which do not have student support are frequently violated. When students are involved in the making of the rules, they feel committed to them. In this case, the rules were revised in the light of the survey of parent opinion and information brought out by students in open hearings.

Summary

The dormitory program can contribute toward educational goals by providing experiences in democratic citizenship and those which help the individual to mature and adjust. Respect for human dignity should be a basic criterion in the selection of the residence-hall counselor. She should be educated to understand the human personality, to identify people in trouble, and to understand and use democratic group methods. The lag in making use of dormitory life as an educational process is partially attributed to the influence of the German educational system, which ignored the student's life outside the classroom.

Communication between the residence-hall counselor and other staff members is desirable. Communication between the residents and the other divisions of college life should be encouraged.

If educational goals are to be reached through the resident-hall program, students must have something to say about the rules by which they live.

Physical surroundings and fiscal policy influence the success of the dormitory program.

The dormitory counselor should be a member of the dean of students' staff, responsible to him through the dean of men or women or director of housing who is well trained in student personnel work.

Off-campus housing can be a part of the student personnel program. Upper-class students can be involved in the orientation of new students to the hall program and campus life.

CHAPTER 8 *Positive Forces in Discipline*

Defining the Term

The term "discipline" is invested with a variety of meanings. It is commonly used synonymously with punishment. It may be used to mean order in the classroom and in the halls of the school or college. In this context the role of the student personnel worker with regard to discipline may be conceived as one who relieves the administration of troublesome problems and disposes of the troublemakers with a minimum of unpleasantness. Help for the maladjusted may be considered an aspect of discipline.

None of these definitions is very satisfactory. Actually we are talking about discipline when we speak of serving the needs of the students, providing opportunities for wide participation, making the individual feel that he counts, developing democratic attitudes, and following all the procedures which help to build morale. The development of self-discipline and self-direction is an educational goal toward which disciplinary procedures can contribute. Viewed in this light, discipline has positive and constructive aspects.

Whereas discipline once meant the keeping of order, it is now conceived as providing experiences and establishing procedures which make the students responsible for keeping themselves in order. The meaning is amplified if we assume that order is more nearly ensured when the students do take responsibility for their own actions. More meaning is attached if we consider that experience in self-discipline is indispensable to members of a free, democratic society. If we truly believe, as we profess, that learning is most meaningful when the individual helps to make his own decisions and choose his own course of action, that the most efficient learning takes place when the individual's thought and study are accompanied by activity, then we can accept this enlarged concept of discipline. Treatment and rehabilitation of the offender and routing him to the proper authorities are part of the program, but not the whole program.

Background of Discipline Problems

The Home. The roots of satisfactory or unsatisfactory behavior are often found in the home, where the individual develops his first self-concept as a person who is liked or disliked, accepted or rejected, worthy or unworthy. If he finds emotional security in his relationships with his parents and siblings, he will be most likely to develop acceptable and constructive habits of behavior. If he cannot satisfy his basic needs for love and acceptance, the chances are that he will rebel or, perhaps, withdraw into a world of fantasy. If he regards himself as unacceptable and untrustworthy, he will be inclined to act according to those standards. The child expresses an inner security who says, "I did a bad thing, but I'm not a bad girl. My parents didn't like it, but they like me."

The pattern of success or failure in social situations begins to be established in the home. The child expects to be accepted or rejected by people according to the degree of acceptance he has enjoyed at home. His behavior is influenced by the kind of response he anticipates. If he regards the world as hostile, he will act in a hostile manner toward it.

The need to be loved and accepted is demonstrated in early infancy. Evidence can be produced which indicates that children who suffer rejection in childhood become unable to show affection to others in later life.

Ruch (196:445ff.) comments on the case history [1] of a baby separated from his mother when he was a few weeks old. He failed to gain weight and developed diarrhea and finger sucking and could not keep his food down, in spite of good care. After a substitute mother was found for him and later when he was placed in a good foster home, he made improvement, but he was unable to express affection, although he developed inertia and symptoms of depression whenever it was necessary for his foster mother to be absent from him.

Ruch says the infant's first experience in trusting and loving other people is this process of learning to trust and love his parents. The child who experiences anxiety and distrust in this first crucial relationship will tend to have difficulty in meeting social situations, making friends, or forming a satisfying marital relationship later, according to Bergler (22). If the child's need to be loved is not met, he will probably develop the kind of behavior which invites further rejection by the teacher, and thus the problem is intensified.

The insecurity of the child often springs from the insecurity of his parents. The parent whose needs for affection, social approval, and ful-

[1] Ribble, Margaret, *The Rights of Infants*, Columbia University Press, New York, 1947, pp. 4ff.

fillment are not met is handicapped in ability to understand his child and to make rational decisions regarding him. He cannot give his undivided attention at any time to the child's needs nor provide the kind of experiences in which he will learn acceptable behavior patterns. His own need to be accepted and approved may lead him to try to force adult standards on his child, without consideration for the child's own motivations and emotions, or to interpret childish actions according to adult standards.

Parents are sometimes confused with regard to discipline, uncertain whether or not any discipline is desirable and when and how to administer it. When a crisis arises they may exert their authority with a sense of guilt which is readily communicated to the child. Ruch (196:449) says a spoiled child is the result of inconsistent attention rather than of too much.

Limits must be defined and enforced in order that the child will learn to live with others, but desirable habits are more likely to develop in a climate of positive learning and acceptance than in a negative frame of correction and disapproval. Punishment is justified when it can prevent the child from doing harm to himself or others, but even this learning should be reinforced by other experiences in which positive methods are used. The child learns early to comply with parental wishes or to resent and reject them. Parents may become identified in his mind with all authority, and his attitudes toward his parents are carried over to any authoritarian situation.

The child tends to learn in the home to differentiate between acceptable and unacceptable behavior. While he is learning to feed himself, he is also learning attitudes about eating. If the psychological conditions surrounding the eating situation are pleasant and agreeable, characterized by understanding and sympathy, the child's attitude toward eating is likely to be cooperative. He will express his attitude by facial expressions, movements, and sounds. If this kind of psychological atmosphere is provided consistently, the habit of eating, with accompanying attitudes, becomes fixated and the child is well on the way toward a satisfactory adjustment as far as eating is concerned.

If the psychological atmosphere is charged with anxiety or the act is accompanied by unpleasantness, criticism, the use of force, or punishment, the child will develop negative attitudes, fears, guilt feelings, and anxieties. He may refuse to eat or may regurgitate. Crying, sulking, withdrawing, and temper tantrums may be indications that he finds it impossible to meet the demands of the situation. Thus, the tension and anxiety of the parents are translated into the behavior of the child and will be demonstrated in the school situation as well as the home.

The ability to discriminate is developed in the home. If the child is punished as severely for getting mud on the floor as for deliberately hitting his neighbor with a hammer, he will probably not develop the power to discriminate between mischief and serious offenses. The child will get a confused picture of reality which he will apply outside the home.

If These Conditions are Present in The Home	We Observe These Types of Behavior in The College Student
Lacks understanding	Supersensitiveness
Exhibits frequent anger	Expressions of hate
Manifests frequent irritation	Moping by herself
Shows evidence of disappointment in child	Class cutting
Makes unreasonable demands	Self-consciousness
Has irritating mannerisms	Listlessness
Is nervous	Expressions of inferiority
Frequently criticizes child	Crying
STUDENT	Absence from meals
	Expressions of prejudice
	Expressions of fear
	Sulking--pouting
	Spitefulness
	Difficulty in making friends
	Failure to keep appointments
	Resentment of criticism
	Difficulty in making introductions
	Violation of major rules

Fig. 6. Relationship of home adjustment to observable behavior of junior college students. The conditions described at the left of the chart are implied by the answers of the unsatisfactory group to questions in the Bell Adjustment Inventory. The responses at the right of the chart are the types of behavior which are commonly observed among students with home maladjustment. Statistical treatment showed that these types of behavior differentiated the two groups of girls studied. Differences were shown by critical ratios of 3 or greater than 3. A critical ratio of 3 indicates that the true difference is greater than zero and that there is only 1 chance in 1,000 that the difference is due to chance.

When parents constantly set goals that are too difficult for the child to achieve, and punishment is administered in the form of criticism, the child will probably develop attitudes of inferiority, guilt, and resentment. If he finds retaliation unprofitable he may bury his feelings, withdraw from reality, or make his neighbor a scapegoat. Or he may attempt over a long period of time to excel and break down abruptly because of resulting tensions. The classroom teacher is acquainted with the actively rebellious pupils as well as the silently withdrawn. Each can be a disruptive element in the class. Either may need counseling or psychotherapy before the problem can be solved.

The child needs to feel adequacy. He needs to experience successes in climbing ladders, buttoning up his own coat, serving his own guests, etc. The failure to acquire a feeling of adequacy in the home has a per-

sistent influence on the school child. Whether he fails to acquire it because of neglect or because of the reluctance of the mother to let him become self-sufficient or for some other reason, he is likely to need individual help from his teacher or counselor.

Evidence of the close relationship between home adjustment and behavior is found in a study of the behavior of 211 junior college students (276). In the judgment of four observers, those students whose test results indicated unsatisfactory home adjustment exhibited significantly less satisfactory behavior than those whose scores indicated satisfactory home adjustment. Among the 106 students whose home-adjustment scores were unsatisfactory, there were 21 violators of major rules as compared with 6 from the 105 students in the satisfactory group.

Students who reported that parents lacked understanding, exhibited frequent anger and frequent irritation, expressed disappointment in the child, made unreasonable demands, etc., were found to express supersensitiveness, hate, inferiority, self-consciousness, prejudice, fear, spitefulness, and resentment of criticism more often than those whose answers indicated more understanding parents. The chart on page 145 indicates the effect of parental behavior on the child.

Maier (126:115*ff.*) describes a study of two groups of graduate students, one consisting of people who had been reared in regimented homes where parents had been inconsiderate of children's feelings, and the other composed of people whose parents had shown respect for the way children saw things. More frequent instances of aggressive behavior were found in the regimented group to extend to friends, teachers, and others. Broken engagements were more than three times as frequent. Speech defects, worry, excessive daydreaming, and exorbitant ambitions were more common.

Attempts on the part of the parents to dominate the behavior of their children led to effects opposite to those the parents may have intended. In no way was character developed by the [intended] character training. . . . Morals likewise were not improved. . . .

If regimented training has negative value only, one may wonder why parents persist in such training. . . . In the group with the most frustrating home training 81 per cent come from homes in which the parents were unhappily married; 24 per cent from homes in which the parents were divorced or separated; and 40 per cent from homes having social or economic handicaps. . . . The differences indicate that the parents were aggressive toward their children, persisted in ineffective training, and lacked the maturity for coping with the situation because they were frustrated themselves. They undoubtedly believed in their training methods, but this was a form of rationalization rather than a choice of training method based on motivation. Thus frustration of one generation creates the conditions for frustrating the next generation, and man's ability to think is

used to justify frustration-instigated behavior rather than to remove frustration. It is important to recognize that common sense and reasoning ability alone are not adequate tools for dealing with problems in human relations if this circular causal sequence is to be broken.

In other words, adults need help in understanding their own emotions and motivations if they are to change their own behavior and thus prevent their children from repeating their pattern.

Conflicts of this nature can arise in homes where parents are well educated and conscientious. The parents may be kind and considerate of employees, respectful of human worth and dignity in their relations with colleagues, active in civic welfare projects, and yet fail to apply these concepts in their relationships with their children. The children may be required to conform to a rigid schedule and to curtail their own activities so as not to interfere with the more important affairs of their parents.

The parents' attitude may be: "We work hard to make us all secure and to make the home comfortable, and our work is important to improvement of community life. You must contribute by helping the home to run smoothly and by not interfering with our important projects."

The children feel: "We don't belong any place, either at home or at school. We have no way of realizing values which are important to us. Nobody cares about us. We feel left out."

Parents in a work-centered home may spend considerable time and energy justifying themselves and quarreling with each other, trying to fix the blame for their obvious failures on each other or on the children. They may be frustrated, too, by the economic situation, by obstacles in the way of work or civic projects. They continue to be influenced by the way in which they were reared, by childhood experiences with authority or rejection.

In such a home, the petty irritations of daily living assume exaggerated proportions. Old grievances remain close to the surface. Tension mounts with every small transgression.

Although parents may need professional help toward solving their problems, they are often unwilling to admit to themselves that a problem exists. Yet they are unable to bring to bear their superior intellect and training on resolving a conflict in which emotions are patently involved.

The attitudes of children from such a home may be reflected in carelessness, prolonged crying spells, preoccupation, lack of attention in the classroom, excessive daydreaming, petty acts of rebellion, or in other ways which attract the unfavorable attention of teachers.

Overprotection, oversolicitousness, and overindulgence also inhibit maturity. The overprotected child fails to develop independence and self-

confidence. Oversolicitousness may develop in the child preoccupation with self and with health. Fears regarding dying, disease, germs, and other things may weigh on him. Overindulgence, especially if spasmodic, may have undesirable results.

People apparently define overindulgence in different ways. A discussion among several parents over providing play equipment for children brought out this distinction. They agreed that swings and seesaws were legitimate gifts, but that permitting a child to beat a chair with a bottle could be classified as overindulgence.

One of the undesirable aspects of all these practices is that the parent takes away from the child his share of responsibility and limits opportunities to become self-directive. Another is that they may be outlets for parental guilt, springing from underlying rejection of the child.

Sibling rivalry can also be a factor in the child's adjustment. Competition with a brighter, more talented, or prettier sibling can contribute to maladjustment or lesser problems. Teachers may be inclined to judge a child's ability according to the record of older brothers or sisters or by the status of parents. Understanding a child's limitations and helping him to feel accepted are important to his acceptance of himself.

One child of average ability in a brilliant family was helped when he found that, although he felt he was "dumb," actually he ranked in the upper medium group of students in ability as compared with people of his age and grade. While his ability to achieve had apparently been depressed by his concept of himself, he became able to achieve according to his tested mental ability and to feel successful in the pursuit of his own particular interests.

Conflict between parents or the inadequacy of one parent can make it difficult for a child to define his own role or to identify with the parent of the same sex. The child develops his self-picture from his experiences with his mother, his family, and other individuals.

The child whose family life is unhappy and who hates his like-sex parent may become identified with the opposite-sex parent. He then finds it difficult to play the role which is expected of him. He does not fit very well into either sex role, and he cannot maintain a secure position in his age group. Rejection by his own sex aggravates his problem.

This is an oversimplified explanation of the process of defining one's sex role. Many other factors are involved. A boy who is unable to regard the opposite sex as desirable in the socially acceptable sense may interpret masculinity as the normal state and the physical and mental characteristics of woman as abnormalities, and vice versa.

Successful and satisfying experiences in either role have a great deal to do with the development of psychological sex characteristics. The girl

who likes her mother, wants to be like her, and plays with dolls, minia-
ture washing machines, and vacuum sweepers probably develops feminine
characteristics. The boy who is accepted into the fraternity of manhood
through close association with his father in sports, farm duties, or explor-
ing the mysteries of automobiles has a good chance to absorb and inter-
nalize masculine values and attitudes.

The child who is having trouble identifying himself with his same-
sex parent, who is painfully exploring what kind of a person he really is,
needs special help from teachers and the school staff. He may be in greater
need of understanding and acceptance than the average child and expe-
rience less.

We may conclude that an important factor in the development of the
child's personality is the degree to which parents are able to regard him
as a person and give him respect as well as affection. The influence of
the home on the maturing of the individual is reflected in this excerpt
from an autobiographical sketch of a woman who was able to internalize
the values of her elders and live according to them.

For as long as I can remember, my chief interest in life has been other people.
I was fortunate in being brought up in a home where we were encouraged to re-
spect each member of the family and every other individual, regardless of how
important or unimportant, as a human being with needs and feelings, hopes and
aspirations. This respect of every person is something I have never forgotten.

If disciplinary problems are, indeed, traced back to home adjustment,
what is the responsibility of the school? First, the student personnel worker
or teacher can better understand the child if he recognizes the effect of
home experiences on the adjustment of the individual. Second, he may
be able to help the child to understand himself. Third, he may be able
to help the parents understand how their attitudes affect the child's ad-
justment. Fourth, it may be possible to provide social experiences in
which the child will feel successful and accepted by others.

Acceptance by teacher, student personnel worker, or administrator is
a salutary experience. One college professor says that the slightest bit
of warmth on the part of his instructors called forth the necessary effort
to achieve success in his classes. Attitudes of indifference or rejection
inhibited achievement. The boy who cannot admire his father or feel ac-
cepted by him may find it possible to identify with his principal, super-
intendent, or male teacher and thus develop attitudes and interests which
are considered appropriate to masculinity.

The School. The effect of the school on the child's concept of himself
may interrupt his emotional development. Even if the child develops a
favorable picture of himself in the home, his first experience in nursery

school or in play with other children may disturb the picture. If his attention is forcibly drawn to weaknesses, stupidities, or inadequacies, Gardner Murphy (151:497) says he may be unable to find his way back to the original satisfying picture. He says an unlovely self-picture leads to unlovely views of other people.

Dorothy Baruch (17:374*ff.*) discusses the need of the child to show his very natural feelings of hostility at being restrained. She says that concealed hostility produces crippling tensions and feelings of guilt and shame. If the teacher sees expressions of hostility as inevitable and natural, she will handle them differently than if she encounters them unexpectedly or regards them as evil or abnormal.

Unrest and even violence may be expected if the school is not meeting the needs of the students. If the curriculum is not related to their interests and needs, if the social and activity programs do not include most of the students, maintaining order will be difficult.

Constant disciplinary trouble may indicate that the school experience is not meaningful to its students, the faculty is out of touch with the students, or the emphasis is on conformity rather than learning. Repeated infractions of a given rule may indicate that something is wrong with the rule or that the students had no part in establishing the rule.

Rules not only do not solve the problem, but even contribute to a lack of discipline because they create the situation in which an act becomes a violation. Indiscriminate rules invite violations. Each rule should be critically inspected to see if it is absolutely necessary and enforceable.

As indicated in previous chapters on the group structure, horseplay in the classroom may very well be a result of laissez-faire leadership. Rebellious behavior may be a symptom of authoritarian methods of teaching. Hostility and resentment may be expected in a transition period from autocratic methods of discipline to relative freedom and responsibility taking by the students.

The history of a child's school experience may help the teacher or counselor to understand his misbehavior. Traumatic or embarrassing experiences connected with school are often unearthed in the background of the troublesome child. One squirmy, noisy, little nonconformist (incredible as it may seem in this enlightened day) had been tied to his chair by his kindergarten teacher. After two years, he was still having nightmares during which he felt unable to run and escape his pursuers. Needless to say, he was a classroom distraction for many years.

Flagrant destruction of school property in one classroom demanded the attention of the high school principal. Upon visiting the class, he discovered that the teacher, a charming and intelligent divorcee, was un-

consciously using the situation as an outlet for her own frustrations. She was the star and the center of attention. Little opportunity was given the pupils for self-expression. They showed their rebellion by throwing chairs out the window.

The noise from another unruly class interfered with work in the rooms on either side. Investigation revealed that the teacher was in the habit of procrastinating in test preparation. She would arrive at the school building on the morning of test day with the questions in longhand. Two of the brighter students would be excused to do the mimeographing. After twenty minutes or more of stalling, she would retrieve the mimeographed sheets and administer them to her resentful pupils, knowing there was insufficient time to complete the work.

A very bright girl who was a troublemaker had suffered public humiliation in music class. The method used in the entire school system involved placing the best singers in the back row and the worst singers in the front row, with various gradations in between. The girl was the niece of a famous musician and the daughter of an accomplished pianist. She was expected to have musical talent. When she performed so poorly as to be placed among the worst singers, the teacher and her assistant audibly expressed their surprise. The child reacted to the situation with obvious resistance and resentment. The ultimate discovery that her voice was a lovely natural alto, too low to sing the air with the treble of her small classmates, could not erase the scars of her trying experience. Her rebellious attitude toward school was intensified by her discovery that her conformative younger sister, though less intelligent, drew more favorable attention from her teachers and high marks in her schoolwork. School experiences of this nature create persistent discipline problems.

Unsatisfactory behavior can conceivably derive from limited ability, particularly if unreasonable demands are made on the individual. A study of mental ability in a state institution for delinquent boys showed that approximately one-third of the inmates were below average in mentality. The problem in this case would seem to be providing suitable activities rather than disciplinary action.

Misunderstandings sometimes result between teachers and pupils because of a difference in standards and mores. Teachers assume that the standards by which they were reared are the right ones or the universal ones. Children of a different community or occupational level may have different standards of conduct.

Little girls in some communities get their first long party dresses at the age of twelve or thirteen and begin going to girl-boy parties. If the teacher comes from a community where children of that age are still playing with dolls, the new idea might be shocking to her. When a teacher

is new in a community, she may find that the particular variety of slang is offensive to her, although the students may mean no offense.

The teacher must take her share of the responsibility for discipline. Percival Symonds (225:145) believes that teachers can afford to be more accepting and more permissive of pupils, an attitude which results in better pupil behavior. He says, "Usually where there are discipline problems, we find personal inadequacies and insecurity in the teacher, a conclusion which indicates that discipline is a matter of teacher-pupil relationship . . . . teacher-pupil relationships are perhaps the core of the whole educational problem as regards mental health."

School experiences can contribute to confusion with regard to values and to self. On this subject, Gardner Murphy (151:507) says:

To the elementary-school period must also be assigned the enormously important role played by remote standards in the form of national or religious leaders who are conceived to be like the father or the neighborhood hero, but more so. These national heroes and their like are presented in terms of trait psychology. The George Washington who cannot tell a lie and the honest rail splitter Abe Lincoln are fair samples of the general western European folklore, in which national character is stereotyped in the child in large part through the inculcation of traits considered commendable. The studies of Hartshorne and May make clear how devastating a job has been done on American children by the fifth and sixth grades in the sense that many of the trait stereotypes of this sort, such as "honesty," have not been made fully clear and organically related to the child's life. Yet lip service to them constitutes a large part of moral education, and deviation from them provides a center for an inferiority feeling and self-disvaluation that operates through the adolescent period to intensify the sense of guilt arising from primary behavior deviations. We might say that the self-picture has become a vague blob of rather uncertain texture—the child is still trying to find out who he is with such bright and shining secondary trait attributes as ideals and good qualities lying around the center, some undesirable traits further out in the periphery, and a sense of unreality pervading the whole. In his heart, the individual knows full well that this official self-picture upon which the grown-up world relies, and which he must pretend to accept, is quite different from the complicated individuality which he would see were his eyes allowed to open all the way.

The Culture. Conflicting values in our culture are confusing to youth. The church, home, and school tend to set superstandards for behavior which are unrealistic. The child finds himself unable to measure up to them. He does not know what to expect of himself. In a discussion of discipline as an educational process, Driscoll (56:28ff.) states:

If discipline is to develop integrity, good judgment, responsibility and self respect, it must rest on mutual respect between adults and young people. Standards set up by adults must take into consideration the ability of the child to

live up to them. Finally, we must not expect perfection of our children. Rather we should trust them and show them that we consider them persons of good intentions who may sometimes fall below the standards we should like to have them maintain, but who, on the whole, are doing very well indeed.

The Peer Group. The effect of the code of the "peer group" upon behavior is often ignored. The need to belong to the same-age group, to be accepted by one's peers is a strongly motivating desire. Prescott (172:109*ff.*) speaks of the child society with its own activities, customs, and codes. He points out that the nature of society changes with the maturing of its members. "The place they want in their child society tremendously affects adolescents in junior and senior high schools. At this period they are great conformists to the customs and codes of the group. Often these come into conflict with the rules of the family and the school."

To be obliged to ask permission to make an engagement, to wear certain garments, to be seen with certain classmates may be outside the common code or may be assumed by the individual to be violations of the conventions of his group. In this case he will go to any lengths to avoid jeopardizing his security in the group. If behavior contrary to his standards is forced on him, it will be very painful.

Teachers and personnel workers, to be effective in handling situations of this kind, must understand how the students "feel" about their own society. Self-exploratory group discussions help them to gain these insights and make it possible for them to help the students understand themselves.

Prescott (172:109*ff.*) notes the special problems of the child who matures at a more rapid or less rapid rate than his peers:

Children need special help from the teacher during this period. Early maturing children need social experiences of a different kind from those needed by late maturing ones. The teacher must consider the developmental level of all the children when planning activities. Otherwise tensions will arise, conflicts and behavior problems will result.

Gang fights, open hostility to teachers, defacing of buildings are some evidences of release of tensions which have been built up in children when adults lack understanding of what these children are going through.

He says if children have a secure place in their "peer" group, they are more ready to make the adjustment necessary during adolescence. Teachers can help them find it, but not by interceding directly with others for them.

More thorough understanding of children by teachers is the aim of a project described by Prescott. With guidance from the department of education at the University of Maryland and the department of education of the University of Chicago, groups of teachers in various parts of the nation are studying children, trying to understand their emotions,

motivations, and needs. Each teacher selects one child to study over a long period of time. He gathers information from other teachers, visits to the child's neighborhood and home, observation of the child in various situations. At group study meetings, teachers read these anecdotes to each other and weigh the information. They gradually learn to record significant facts, to submerge their own opinions, and to understand children's actions.

Physical Causes. In spite of improved screening devices and routine physical examinations, physical handicaps do escape notice. One sturdy, handsome fourth-grader who lay screaming on the floor was returned to the school doctor for a second checkup and found to be almost totally deaf in one ear. He had been pressed to compete with children who had an unfair advantage over him.

The daughter of a college professor was in the sixth grade in a city school before it was discovered that she could not see the blackboard from her seat. She was exonerated from a seeming lack of cooperation.

Teachers of a bright boy habitually reproved him for not achieving to capacity. He did not improve in achievement, and his behavior grew steadily worse. A test for eye-muscle imbalance revealed a very low rate of fusion at the near point. This handicap made it impossible for him to develop speed in reading and any success in his classes.

Malnutrition, low basal metabolism, and other physical conditions are found to be factors in behavior problems. Thyroid imbalance was found in 18 per cent of the pupils in the first four grades of Santa Barbara County schools, and 75 per cent of the behavior problems fell in this group (41:100).

Explaining the Offender

Good versus Evil. The theory by which the offender is explained affects the way in which the offender is treated. One of the prevailing theories, according to Overstreet (165:76ff.), is the good-versus-evil theory. The assumption is that "people do good because there is good in them; they do evil because there is evil in them." The good-versus-evil theory has a strong appeal, Overstreet believes, to people in positions of authority. Aside from unusually mature persons, the parent, teacher, employer, policeman, or public official responds to deviating behavior "that makes extra work or makes him look foolish or disturbs the orderly arrangement of things" by assuming that it is bad. Authoritarians are inclined to judge deviating acts according to how they themselves are affected.

Although few would openly subscribe to the idea of mortifying the body for the good of the soul, many unconsciously behave as if they do believe it. Our puritan forefathers and earlier religious devotees believed that

anything which was painful was beneficial and that pleasure was sinful. Punishment, policing, curbing, exhortation, haranguing, and other authoritarian ideas of discipline derive from this belief. An incident from the experiences of a rural high school principal illustrates the prevalence of this belief. The sheriff of the county was discussing the destruction of property by a student. "Let him spend a few nights in my establishment," he insisted, "it'll do him good."

Even in the case of an offender who is most unlikely to repeat his violation, many would insist on retribution. On the contrary, the psychologist thinks of the possibility of rehabilitation. If in extreme cases the deviate must be institutionalized, the psychologist does not prescribe it as retribution but as treatment or as a last resort for the protection of the community.

The workings of the extreme authoritarian mind were evident during the discussion by a faculty committee of a case of petty thievery. To the astonishment of the rest of the committee, a usually conservative member was in favor of no action at all. It appeared that he favored readmitting the culprit, while the habitually lenient counselor urged psychiatric treatment. The counselor judged from test results that the offender was dangerous to the school and likely to repeat his offenses. He believed that the student was in need of help which the school was not equipped to give. The authoritarian member, it developed, believed that if the school took no action the law would handle the case, and the thief would get his "just desserts." Authoritarians behave as if they believe in exacting "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth." Whenever violence is inflicted as punishment for violence, one wonders who is the greater offender.

The good-versus-evil theory depends on coercion or persuasion to change behavior. In some cases punishment does produce learning when it comes as a direct and obvious result of ill-advised action, but the good-versus-evil disciplinarians are seemingly unaware of the fact that desired learning does not always take place as a result of punishment. They have a childlike belief in the efficacy of the psychological law of effect without analyzing its ramifications. Punishment does not produce the desired change in behavior when it is not connected in the mind of the punished with the offense; when it follows too late to be associated with the offense; when it is repeated so often as to produce negative conditioning or flattening of feeling; when it is inconsistent with the gravity of the offense; when it is the only attention the offender gets and is therefore preferred to indifference; when the rewards accruing from the violation compensate for punishment; when punishment is assumed to relieve the offender of responsibility for his actions; and when personality damage results from the punishment.

Actually, it is not correct to say that the offender does not learn as a result of punishment. He learns, but he does not always change his behavior. He may learn that more satisfactions accrue from deviate behavior than from conformative behavior, or he may learn not to get caught. He learns, but the learning is not what the punisher intends.

It is a curious characteristic of the good-evil disciplinarian that he is inclined to rely on the effect of punishment more heavily than on the effect of reward. It is generally accepted, intellectually at least, that rewards produce more learning than punishment. Yet in practice the parent or teacher frequently waits for an offense to be committed before he acts. Society spends more money for punishment than it does on positive measures. In some progressive penal institutions, acceptable rewards are employed for good behavior, but they fail to compensate for the early years when the violators came to experience satisfactions as a result of unacceptable behavior.

Thus it appears that the good-versus-evil disciples are operating from a naïve and incomplete concept of psychology. They should be required to define their objectives and evaluate the results of their methods. Are they aiming at a permanent change in behavior or merely at retribution? Do they accomplish their ends? A real change in the attitude of authoritarians, however, can only come about through understanding of their own attitudes.

Knowledge versus Ignorance. A theory which has obtained widespread support, according to Overstreet (165:76ff.), is the theory of knowledge versus ignorance. The liberal mind, he says, is attracted by this theory. The assumption is that if the individual knows what is right, he will do right. Even Socrates, he points out, "was bold to declare that knowledge is virtue." Overstreet writes of the enormous faith of Americans in "the inexhaustible power of factual knowledge. . . . Even though they may, in their moments of anger, or in their area of authority, act out the goodness-badness theory, they tend . . . in their appraisal of life in general to feel that if only enough people can be enough educated . . . all will be right with the world."

However, today, in an age of greater literacy than ever before, problems of world conflict, mass destruction, and economic survival seem more acute than ever before. An appalling percentage of the world's population occupy space in penal institutions and hospitals for the mentally ill. Overstreet (165:79ff.) comments: "When we regard the curious perversities to be found among many educated adults—self-absorptions, pettinesses, fears, egotisms, prejudices, dogmatisms, pedantries—we are forced to wonder whether the dispelling of ignorance is anything more than the merest beginning of wisdom, not its achievement."

Every reader can call to mind examples of people who know perfectly well the kind of behavior which is required to reach their goals and still cannot make themselves act according to their knowledge. The young wife knows that an angry scene will further alienate her husband, but she cannot refrain from indulging herself. The psychology instructor recites perfectly from a difficult text, but he cannot apply his knowledge to teaching his own students. The depressed neurotic knows it is not true that he has never done anything right or that he has nothing to live for, but the waves of despondency nevertheless threaten to envelop him. The schoolboy knows that truancy is unacceptable, but he goes fishing anyway. The diplomat is hard put to see any desirable outcomes from war, but he is unable to avert it and indeed finds himself supporting measures which he cannot honestly condone.

Analysis of the knowledge-ignorance theory leads us to conclude that it is incomplete and unrealistic. It fails to include the powerful factor of emotion as it influences human behavior.

Emotion versus Reason. Evidence that we are governed by our emotions is all around us. The potentialities for productivity are immeasurable in the human individual, but he is limited by his emotions, as studies of morale factors and production will testify (187; 95:451*ff.*). Even the untutored farmer knows that the cow will not give her milk when she is emotionally disturbed. The human animal is no less affected by emotional disturbances.

Some notice is taken of the colossal implications of the conflict between emotion and reason in current literature. Northrup (163), in his book, *The Meeting of East and West*, dwells on the emotionality of the East and the emphasis on reason in the West. The split in modern Western civilization between feeling and reason has been the theme for symbolic novels such as *The Years of the Pilgrimage* by Kenneth Davis (54). Earl Edgar (62) in reviewing this book called the conflict "the central, the crucial issue of our time."

In the writings of Carl Rogers (190), clinical counselor, Frederick Allen (4), psychiatrist, Dorothy Baruch (19), child guidance worker, Nathaniel Cantor (38), teacher and administrator, and many, many others, we find frequent references to the need for attention to how the individual feels, as a prerequisite for influencing behavior. If the student is depressed, he cannot pay attention. If the worker is worried, insecure, or resentful, he curtails his output. Even the peace of the world is affected by peoples' feelings of insecurity, jealousy, and desire for prestige and status. To continue to ignore such a basic motivation would appear to be virtually suicidal on a mass scale.

We have discussed three theories of behavior. One assumes that good

dispells evil and one that knowledge dispells ignorance. The third differs from the other two in the inference that emotion and reason must work together to influence behavior.

Emotion is not necessarily a negative factor. It can supply powerful motivating drives as easily as it can block and inhibit. The problem is how to use it for constructive ends. Overstreet (165:82) says, "Knowledge can become virtue only if it enters into an emotional context that makes its assimilation possible."

Maturity versus Immaturity. Undesirable behavior, that which is harmful to the community and the individual, is a by-product of emotional immaturity. The mature person recognizes his responsibilities as well as his rights. He sees his obligation to society and regulates his behavior so as to contribute to the welfare of the group. The gains and benefits of the group are the same to him as personal gains.

The immature individual regards the world as a hostile place. He is concerned with personal security and disregards the welfare of those who might get in his way. He justifies his exploitations, aggressions, or lack of achievement by rationalizing, "Everyone else is getting his," "The lucky ones have a pull," or "Everyone picks on me." He is the typical discipline problem. Even though his self-protective devices make him a millionaire, he is still immature.

The immature individual has never grown out of the infant stages of emotional development. The infant's world is concerned wholly with himself. It expands to include his mother, then his family, then his community, and ultimately the world. The immature individual does not progress past the early stages.

Immaturity is not confined to the ranks. The immature leader achieves a position of authority by singleness of purpose and action. He may seek to maintain his position by the principle of "divide and rule." He finds a scapegoat. He corrupts the people by assuming responsibility which is rightfully theirs.

An immature attitude can prevail among the majority of the citizens in a given country. Overstreet (165:151) says that the people who assume without evidence that their country is always fair and just in its relations with other countries and always on the right side in controversial matters between countries are equivalent to the children who contend, "My family is better than yours," "My father can lick yours." Such a fixed-in-advance attitude, he says, "is bred by the need to feel secure in a situation when one is not yet maturely in command of one's own powers." The political implications in this atomic age are forbidding.

The problem of the educator is to decide what experiences can be provided by the school to contribute to the development of maturity in the

students. Self-discipline is a factor in maturity. Whatever contributes to maturity will help solve the discipline problems.

Experiences of abject failure, rejection by parents and teachers, undue criticism, excessive punishment, overprotection, traumatic fright, and similar incidents are what one writer calls "unnegotiable experiences." They cannot be used by the student in developing his concept of himself as a mature individual.

Experiences which contribute to maturity must offer an opportunity for the individual to participate actively. Sitting in the classroom and parroting the words of the instructor or the book is not participation. In order to participate, the student must have a chance to express what he thinks. He must have a choice of opinions or actions and a chance to observe and evaluate what happens when he makes his choice.

Overstreet (165:257) says students "must be self-governing members of that community that is peculiarly theirs: the school." They must have opportunities to decide how the things they are doing can be done better and take responsibility for getting them done better. They must have an opportunity to experience working in a group toward approved ends and to feel the satisfactions which accrue when the group makes progress toward its objectives.

Each must feel that his opinions and actions make a difference in the results. He must feel that he counts. He must believe in his own worth. Discipline is maintained as a by-product in such a school.

Authoritarian Concepts of Discipline

Punishment, lecturing, exhortation, public humiliation, and other authoritarian methods of handling nonconformative students ignore the basic needs of the offender. Tensions are nearly always present when an offense is committed. Authoritarian methods usually increase tensions instead of relieving them. They sometimes solve immediate problems but frequently contribute to long-term problems. They do not help the rejected child to feel accepted, the insecure to feel adequate, the hostile to identify with the group, or the mentally ill to recover.

Lecturing and exhortation not only fail to accomplish their intended ends, but they build up resentment and resistance in the students. When the teacher harangues the class, she lowers their dignity and her own.

If the school authorities play the role of policemen, they will find that the entire responsibility for keeping order falls on them. If they alone make the law and attempt to enforce it, they will receive less cooperation from their subjects than if the pupils themselves take some part in deciding what regulations are necessary and desirable. When at least part of the rules spring from the grass roots, much more of the responsibility

is taken by the governed for living by them. Quite aside from the valuable experience in group living that student participation in government provides, it contributes to the administrative ends of order and efficiency.

Of course, it is possible to produce order from police methods, but the ultimate result is docile obedience, not, in any sense, intelligent self-direction or concern for the welfare of the group. Even when order is produced by such methods, overt conformity may cover seething hostility, and the school staff will find that policing takes an undue proportion of their time.

Curbing. Should the role of the disciplinary officer, the teacher, and administrator be curbing and guiding the supposedly unformed, rebellious nature of the vigorous, young human animal? Should control of the students' behavior be the goal of discipline?

This is an attitude of benevolent paternalism and may result in conformity, but little initiative will be developed as a result. The goal of responsible citizenship is not consistent with this attitude.

Punishing. Psychologists, it is true, have found that human beings learn more when they are punished than they do when their behavior produces no effect. However, rewarding desirable behavior produces more learning than punishing undesirable acts. Excessive punishment generates frustration, loss of self-esteem, fear, resentment, and hate in the offender. These are not productive of good behavior.

Maier (126:214ff.) says, "Reward has the effect of positive motivation. Punishment is its opposite only if motivation is maintained." If punishment frustrates and produces fixations, he says it actually strengthens an undesirable response more than reward could strengthen it.

He quotes Hurlock's study (126:203) of praise and scolding as they affected learning in arithmetic classes. Pupils who were scolded made improvement on the next day, but performance declined on four subsequent days until it was only slightly better than the first day and comparable to the performance of a group not scolded. A group which was praised after the first performance showed continued improvement during the next four days, when its score was almost double that of the control group.

Maier questions punishment which degrades the individual or damages his self-esteem. "The experimental evidence, in general, . . . is in agreement that punishment which is degrading is an ineffective motivating agent when compared to praise. . . ."

Maier believes that punishment may be interpreted as rejection. With regard to the effect of punishment on the rejected child, Mowrer (145:470) says, "To the child who feels rejected by his parents, even the most severe

of physical punishment or deprivations may serve only to confirm his feelings of resentment and his desire for retaliation."

D. B. Miller (138:32*ff.*) says, "A child misbehaves because he has suffered, because he is hurt or afraid. By punishing, we add insult to injury. The healthier he is, the more he will fight back."

Some effects of punishment are therapeutic. Experiencing pain may make the child feel that he has atoned for his offense and relieve him of guilt; but having atoned for his offense, he may assume that no behavior change is necessary. In other words, he may repeat the offense and wait to be punished. Another possibility is the development of masochistic or sexual satisfaction connected with punishment. Punishment, too, may be an outlet for the sadistic impulses of the teacher or disciplinary officer.

Discrimination must be exercised by the disciplinarian. Overseverity in handling mild offenses produces a lack of discrimination in the pupil and may result in increased violence in his behavior. If violent punishment is employed repeatedly he will fail to develop a conscience or, in fact, any deep feeling. A flattening of feeling is observable in habitual offenders. Rejected children and those who have been punished indiscriminately may fail to develop the ability to learn from experience.

These observations lead us to doubt the efficacy of punishment as disciplinary action. If retribution is not the goal of the program, then punishment is one of the less important aspects of discipline. Like policing and curbing, it seemingly disposes of the immediate problem but contributes little to changing behavior and developing self-discipline and self-direction among the students. It operates only after an offense occurs and takes no notice of prevention.

Protecting. Some will inquire, "If the guilty are not punished, how can the innocent be protected? Sexual perverts, pathological thieves, potential killers do exist. Isn't it the responsibility of the administrator to protect the miniature society in his custody?"

Protection of welfare of the group should be one of the outcomes of the discipline program. The question is, How can it best be maintained? Is it better for the individual to take responsibility for his own actions, or to let someone else do it for him? Which will produce the better behavior?

Is the more powerful influence for good the opinion of the group or the opinion of the administrator? High morale and highly developed public opinion are among the important safeguards which prevent discipline problems.

The welfare of the group is affected by the relative productivity of the offender. One of the objectives of the discipline program should

be to restore, if possible, the offender to productivity and participation in his own group.

One of the functions of the disciplinary counselor is to evaluate the chances for rehabilitation. If he decides that the student would profit by referral to an agency outside the school, it is his responsibility to make recommendations accordingly, after consulting his case record and considering the recommendations of such faculty-student committees as exist. If the counselor feels that the offender can be restored to useful participation in the group his responsibility is to the individual as long as he is not dangerous to the group.

In the case of a threat of violence, criminal assault, or even repeatedly disrupting class, the morale or safety of the group is at stake and the obligation to the group comes first.

However, protecting the group is a paternalistic goal and implies helplessness on the part of the students, unless the students are involved in the process themselves. Protecting the group is a relatively negative aspect of discipline.

Why Used. Why would teachers rely mainly on methods that keep the human personality from developing? Is it because they are easier? Is it because the teacher gets emotional satisfaction from being a dictator? Is it because no one knows any better?

One explanation is that the autocratic method is easier for the momentary crisis. The democratic method requires imagination, forethought, planning, and resourcefulness. The disciplinary crisis slips up on the unwary and requires immediate action. The teacher rises to the situation and after the crisis he dismisses it from his mind.

The teacher is in a powerful position. Students subtly flatter the teacher when they assume that he will take the responsibility. There is an ancient maxim which means "Power corrupts." This may be true of the teaching situation. The teacher enjoys a stellar role, but his students fail to develop or to cooperate. The situation is lacking in mutual respect.

The human animal is full of contradictions. He develops adequacy as a result of responsible action, but he will let others take the responsibility if they show they are willing. Many of the students have been reared by semiautocratic parents and taught by autocratic teachers. They unconsciously resent having to take responsibilities. They resent a change in the teacher-pupil relationship and the effort required to change their habits. Taking responsibility means work.

A child who was ill was listening to her father explain why it would be better for her to take her medicine and remain quietly in bed. He showed her the clock and the instructions on the bottle and boxes. She replied wearily, "Oh, daddy, why don't you just make me?"

Teachers who have themselves been taught or reared by autocratic methods tend to use those methods to teach others. Even though they understand intellectually the advantages of democratic methods they are unable to change their behavior.

Authoritarian methods are frequently employed because the teachers believe that the public expects positive action whenever rules are disobeyed. The establishment of rules placates the critical public with a show of outward conformity.

Why Ineffective. Authoritarian methods of discipline, when used exclusively, break down because they are insulting to the integrity and dignity of the individual. They deny his ability to make his own decisions and direct his own behavior. If he thinks of himself as irresponsible he will act accordingly. They are damaging to the self-respect of the individual. When the offender is publicly humiliated or made to feel hopelessly guilty, his self-portrait is damaged. He sees himself as undesirable, degraded, and depraved. He loses the courage and incentive to attack his problems.

Gardner Murphy (151:596*ff.*) implies that before the individual can consider the good of the group or like and understand other members of the group, he must first like himself. He says, "Positive attitudes toward all that lies within the self go hand in hand with positive attitudes toward all that lies beyond it." The child takes on attitudes toward himself from parents, teachers, and others around him. Damaging the self-portrait of the offender not only makes his rehabilitation difficult or even impossible, but it makes him a menace to society, because he finds it difficult or impossible to identify himself with the welfare of the group.

Bingham Dai (48:70*ff.*) stated in an article in *Progressive Education Magazine*, January, 1949:

It is now being increasingly recognized that almost all human actions are "ego-involved" and that the picture or conception one has of himself has a great deal to do with one's behavior in a given situation, no matter whether one is aware of the processes involved or not. . . . Only after a child has achieved personal security or a favorable and respectable self, can he have the readiness and confidence to move further and learn to function effectively without regression or distortion, in the roles appropriate to his age and his expanding sociocultural worlds.

Authoritarian methods of discipline fail because they take from the students the right of decision and self-direction and the opportunity to learn by experiences. When the teacher takes the responsibility for making the student behave from him, it is as if he were carrying a child who is able to walk alone. As long as his rightful responsibility is assumed by someone else, just that long is the child's learning delayed.

Disciplinary Practices

Exacting Promises. Begging the culprit to do better and securing a promise of better behavior seldom produces the desired change and often contributes to underlying tensions, conflicts, and guilt feelings.

Public Humiliation. Public humiliation of the offender may create feelings of guilt and inferiority which continue to influence his behavior long after the incident is forgotten. William C. McGinnis (130:155) describes a child who was made to repeat, "I am a thief and a liar." He reports a nervous breakdown and continued emotional instability as a result of the experience. He condemns sarcasm, ridicule, embarrassment, and shame as means of controlling the student's behavior.

Detention Period. Serving time after school was reported as the most frequently employed method of punishment in 225 schools in the Middle West (91:259ff.). If the penalty is inflicted as a direct and immediate result of an infraction and if it relates to the infraction, it might be effective. If, however, it is used indiscriminately for every offense from throwing chalk to breaking furniture, it becomes ineffectual.

Wasting class time, unexcused absences, tardiness, and the like have some meaningful connection with the penalty. In those instances, it might be invoked. One high school prescribes after-school hours for every absence, excused or otherwise. While absence for trivial reasons is probably somewhat curtailed, very little productive effort is apparent during the time spent. Students are observed doodling and looking out of the windows more often than not.

One of the most obvious arguments against "keeping students in after school" is that it works a hardship on the teacher. It is not fair to prolong a full day when so little benefit accrues. This device also attaches to the classroom undesirable associations in the mind of the student. He associates the school with punishment and discomfort.

Appeal to Higher Authority. Sending the obstreperous student to "the office" is a common device. If it is a practice, the principal or dean should be prepared to take some action. A brisk dressing down or a comfortable wait before returning to class accomplishes little. The student may even gain prestige or get out of something he dislikes in the classroom. Helping the student to state his goals, explain his actions, or explore his aggressions might be more effective.

A joint conference of teacher, student, and principal or dean might be more productive than a visit by the student alone. The three can discuss how to attack the problem.

Cutting Grades. Cutting grades for misbehavior is usually resented bitterly by the students. One experience comes to mind where this penalty

provoked a previously mischievous class into active revolt. Students commonly believe if they have done the work they should get credit in spite of disciplinary infractions.

Denying Privileges. Denying students privileges sometimes works if the privileges are directly connected with the violation. If they destroy play equipment, they have to do without it. If they misbehave on an out-of-town trip, they are not permitted to go the next time. This works better if the students or student representatives decide on the penalty. The teacher usually does not have to be afraid they will be too lenient. Often they exact heavier penalties than the teacher would, and the effect of social disapproval by students is more effective than punishment by the teacher. Denying privileges sometimes creates more problems. For example, if play equipment is withheld, busy hands get into more mischief. The device should be used sparingly and with discrimination.

Cash Payment. Requiring the students to pay for property destroyed is a practice in some schools. This has the disadvantage of passing the responsibility on to the parents. More learning takes place if the students are held responsible. Also, the practice could work a severe hardship on the parent who is barely able to make ends meet anyway.

Furthermore, the principal is often unable to fix the responsibility on any one student or group. Even if he knows who is responsible, he does not always know if the offense was intentional or avoidable. A boy who was caught in a swinging door accidentally thrust his hand through the glass. Although he was inclined toward mischief, the principal was not sure whether or not it was an accident. It could so easily have been. A teacher injured in a similar accident sued a private school and received damages. Who is to fix the blame?

However, on some occasions it appears to work very well. Fraternity boys who were caught jumping on the tops of automobiles were reported by the owners of the cars. The matter was discussed among the members of the various chapters and the decision was made that the boys should compensate the owners for dents and breakage. This was done, and although pranks continued, they were of a less destructive nature.

Repairing Damage. Requiring the students to repair their own damage sometimes works if reparation is made soon and providing the blame is justly placed and particularly if the students themselves make the decision.

Probation. Probation or suspending a verdict as long as the student is on good behavior has some merits. Suppose the student has committed a theft or a violation of the sex code or an act of violence against one of the teachers. The principal is obliged to take definite action. The threat of jail, suspension, or expulsion may put the student under sufficient stress

to make him work on his problem with a counselor. Some adolescents, especially those who have been autocratically reared, apparently do not respond to any method except force. In these cases, not only psychotherapy but environmental changes may be necessary.

The attitude of the punisher is very important. A high school principal, untrained in personnel methods, suspended a boy for striking a teacher. The boy was a basketball player on the first team. While he enjoyed acceptance and respect of members of the team and other students as a basketball player, he was not accepted in a social way. His family occupied an inferior position in the social structure of the town. His big, smelly feet were ridiculed. Even his friends on the team made jokes about his awkwardness in social situations. He concealed his sufferings, but actually he wanted very much to be socially acceptable.

When, after a series of minor infractions, he struck one of his teachers, he felt he had nothing to lose. After he was suspended, however, he realized that the satisfactions he had enjoyed were important to him. He had had enough successes and normal satisfactions that he was able to view the situation realistically. If he had never belonged to any group nor felt any success, he might have welcomed the release from school. He might have felt no pressure to modify his behavior. But this boy had felt enough security in his role as a member of the team that he was willing to conform in order to recapture his position. He learned that his behavior threatened what security he already had.

Although the principal did not attempt to counsel the boy and had no trained clinician to whom he could refer him, he administered punishment dispassionately. He did not moralize or show anger. He merely stated the terms of probation. Conversely, the boy harbored no resentment. After he had been out of school for several days, he went to the principal to ask how to make amends. Later he indicated that he felt the principal was "for him." He confided that he had no money for a sweater and arranged to sell milk to earn money for one. This incident illustrates that force, when combined with understanding, can be used as a temporary measure. Work with the boy's "peer group" further relieved this situation.

Force seems the only alternative in some cases. For example, a student was apprehended while stealing school property. Believing the student to be maladjusted, the principal recommended probation and weekly counseling. Members of the school board and city police recommended reform school.

After the first counseling interview, the student reported to his principal that he felt no need for counseling. The principal reminded him that the alternative was the juvenile court. The student again went to the counselor but returned to the principal to repeat that he felt no need for counseling.

He asked to be relieved of the terms of the probation. The counselor reported that the boy recognized no personal problem.

The principal asked, "You feel then that you have no emotional problem?" The boy replied that he was sure he did not have any serious problems. The principal asked, "Then is there any reason why the law should not operate in the usual way?" This boy had to come in contact with force before the situation had any meaning for him.

Another student responded to a combination of force and counseling. The principal made weekly counseling the terms of his probation. After several contacts, the counselor reported that the student had shown no signs of recognizing that he had a problem. The principal called him in for a talk. He pointed out that unless the student was able to make progress toward understanding and solving his problem, he would be obliged to leave school. He then explained that the student had been permitted to remain in school because the authorities believed he retained enough intact intellect to learn acceptable modes of behavior. The principal stated that while the boy's academic learning had been satisfactory, his learning in social situations had been faulty. He continued that if the boy could not recognize that he had a problem, the school could not help him. The boy apparently understood and accepted this explanation. He and the principal agreed to set the end of the semester for evaluating his learning in the area of behavior and mores of society. The counselor reported that he returned to his weekly interviews with a new attitude.

Thus, pressure from the principal put the boy under stress and provided the necessary motivation for him to work on his problem. Although the principal was firm, he did not moralize or show anger. The student came to believe that the school was on his side because it offered him a better alternative than expulsion. In such cases, responsibility is originally assumed by the principal but gradually transferred to the individual.

Classification of Disciplinary Problems

Disciplinary problems can be roughly classified into five groups: mischief, mistakes, malice, mental illness, and delinquency and crime. Classifying them gives the administrator some criteria for determining treatment. The gravity and frequency of offenses help him to evaluate the school program.

Mischief. A certain amount of mischief can be expected. High spirits and abundant energy effervesce into teasing and practical jokes. The traditional disciplinarian feels obliged to do something about every bit of horseplay. Making an issue of every incident is the surest way to constant irritation. Supplying wholesome activities keeps mischief to a minimum.

Mistakes. Sometimes a real lack of information regarding rules or the

reasons for rules is back of mistakes. A good orientation program, a handbook about the school, and close communication between the student governing officers and the students help to prevent mistakes among new students.

Malice. Malice is a more serious problem. If the offender exhibits deep resentment or lack of conscience, he is potentially harmful to his classmates and himself. A trained counselor is needed to diagnose the problem, evaluate the possibility of improvement, and help the administrator decide how the offender can best be treated. Counseling, environmental therapy, probation, or a combination of these may be indicated.

A distinction should be made between temporary and deep-seated resentment. Treatment may be modified according to whether the violation is a first or second offense.

For example, the principal who was reviewing the case of four boys caught in the act of splashing paint on school property discovered that three of the boys considered it a prank. One of the boys, however, harbored deep resentment against the school and had plans for burning down the building. The three pranksters could be depended upon to cooperate reasonably well with the school authorities, but the one resentful one, a habitual offender, constituted a serious menace. He was referred for counseling and put on probation.

Mental Illness. Few public schools are equipped to care for the mentally ill. It is, however, the responsibility of the school officials to know the symptoms of mental illness and to be prepared to refer such cases to other agencies.

Crime and Delinquency. Crime, delinquency, and mental illness are the joint responsibilities of the school and other agencies. The school authorities should use what facilities are available to them outside the school. The law, medical facilities, social agencies, and organized recreational opportunities offer assistance. Changing the attitudes and habits of the parents or of the child may be possible. Changing the attitudes of the teacher might be attempted. Changing the placement of the child in school could be productive. Placement outside the home with foster parents or in an institution is sometimes recommended. For such measures the school is only partially responsible.

Out of 105 delinquent children brought into the child-guidance clinics of Boston, New Haven, and Detroit during a four-year period, about 91 per cent were found to have serious emotional difficulties, as compared with only 13 per cent of nondelinquent siblings (90). This finding suggests that early clinical treatment might have prevented or reduced delinquency in these cases.

The example of two young men who were apprehended in a theft and

who later became successful as judge and college professor indicates the possibilities for rehabilitation of potential delinquents.

Counseling and Treatment

Rehabilitation. Rehabilitating the offender is often possible through counseling and involving him in appropriate group activities. It is a mistake to regard a disciplinary crisis as an intellectual situation. Violations are seldom the result of "not knowing." They are more often the result of the need of the student to relieve himself of feelings of aggression or hate, the need to compensate for feelings of insecurity or inadequacy, or other complicated emotional drives.

Teachers who seek to solve deep problems by intellectual explanations are almost sure to fail. Recognizing the emotional nature of the problem and counseling the maladjusted are necessary procedures in the more serious cases. Careful study of the case history is indicated. It is the responsibility of the counselor to recognize when information or a simple explanation of the problem will suffice and when clinicial treatment seems urgent.

Defense of Counseling. John Foley (70:569ff.) justifies counseling for the disciplinary case by saying, "Treatment can be personalized as punishment can never be." He speaks of counseling as a learning situation: "Investigatory interviews elicit certain subtle personality factors and attitudes which are useful to the counselor in determining appropriate technics for teaching the student. . . . An administrator not trained as a psychologist might miss them altogether."

The student who is being disciplined is almost always burdened with aggressions. A client in the aggressive stage is usually amenable to counseling. Rehabilitation is more hopeful than in the case of the withdrawn student. When the client is under stress and aware that he has a problem, he is more nearly ready for counseling than the client who cannot admit to himself that he has a problem. Stress in the disciplinary case is produced when the results of the client's actions bring him more discomfort than satisfaction or when satisfactions and dissatisfactions are almost equivalent. Counseling can help if the student feels a conflict between wanting the attention he receives from boisterous actions, for example, and wanting the approval of the group.

Counseling is not indicated if the client has insufficient intelligence to cope with his problems, if he persistently denies that he has a problem, if he is not in touch with reality, or if his environment is so adverse as to make normal satisfactions impossible.

Excerpts from tape-recorded interviews with a student illustrate how a disciplinary case might be handled. The boy's answers to questions asked

in entrance forms included his opinion that he was quick-tempered. Test results indicated better than average mental ability, superior achievement in social studies, natural science, mathematics, and reading. Personal problems in social and emotional adjustment and family relations were suggested by test results.

COUNSELOR: What may I do for you?

A: Well, Mrs. G asked me to come in here and get an appointment every two weeks. Is there any information you want?

C: It would likely be better if you considered this your hour and used it in any way you choose.

A: Well, I'm self-conscious and get embarrassed easily. I hate this and I want to get over it. I know what's wrong, but doing something about it is another matter.

C: You feel you need to correct yourself.

A: Yes, because I don't like myself as I am.[2] I'd like to be able to speak up in class, but I'm almost to the point where I want to quit school. But I just go ahead and force myself to do it.

C: You feel that you must speak up in class. Is that it?

A: Yes, I feel it's the way out of my difficulty. But I have to force myself to do it. I just use will power even when I get red in the face.

C: It embarrasses you to speak out.

A: I perspire; my heart beats rapidly and my face gets red. I'm afraid the class will think the questions are foolish.

C: It means a lot to you, what the class thinks.

A: Yes. I'm afraid they might not approve.

C: And you do want their approval?

A: Yes.

C: Can you tell me more about how you feel?

A: Well, I'm always on edge in public. I'm afraid everyone's looking at me. I'm afraid my head might shake and it often does just from trying to keep it from it. I generally have to sit in the front of the classroom because my name begins with A.

C: You think that the fact that you were thinking about it made it shake.

A: Each semester when classes change I always—get that old feeling of self-consciousness again.

C: You have a fear that it will return?

A: It is just like in history class. I have to sit in the front row and I am pretty self-conscious of myself up there. We were discussing evolution and I decided the instructor was going off a little bit too far in some of his points, so I sort of gave a different view on several points.

[2] The client expresses negative feeling toward self.

I was pretty well concentrating on what I was saying and I wasn't a bit self-conscious. Since then I have felt a little better in there.

C: When you got your mind on this thing—something else that seemed important to you—you forgot this fear that people were thinking about you.[3]

A: Yes.

C: You lost yourself in this and found that you felt better and that sort of held over, too, I take it. It wasn't just while you were talking but when you got the ice broken, it lasted.

A: Yes.

C: It's that "getting started" business that worries you.

A: I always force myself to speak up in class. I used to think that would do it—but it goes deeeper than that.

C: You feel that even though you fool the class into thinking that you are adequate, it is yourself that you have to prove is adequate.

A: Yes. I was a little disappointed in Miss B (faculty adviser). I guess she just didn't understand my case. I had been to her several times, for changing to a new class. I finally went to talk to her about being so self-conscious and well, I just barely got started telling her I was self-conscious and I was talking about an incident where I was a delegate to a convention and I had to come back and report on it. She started off about, "You shouldn't read notes, you should have them well in mind," and she talked about how to report without notes. That is as far as I got.

C: You found out that there is considerably more to this than speech.

A: Well I knew that, but she didn't seem to realize it.

C: Mmm.

A: She said, "You don't have anything to be self-conscious about."

C: But regardless of how she felt about it, you still felt that you were.

A: Well, she just told me how to give a report without notes and I learned that in speech class. What I wanted her to tell me was how to get over being self-conscious.

During the second interview, the student told the counselor at length how he felt about his tensions and feelings of inadequacy and efforts to overcome them. He indicated he felt he was making improvement.

A: You see I am always trying to act like the kind of a guy who is pretty well perfect.

C: You felt that you had to keep a mask on, cover feelings so people couldn't observe them.

A: Well, that is the way it is. I just didn't think of it in that way be-

[3] Counselor clarifies.

fore. I always felt that—well, that they shouldn't find me out.[4]

C: They might discover the feelings that you have about yourself and think less of you.

A: Well—yes, in the past I have tried to pretty well hide my feelings.

C: But you are getting away from that.[5]

A: Yes, I am. I catch myself, though, every once in a while trying to act out something and I have to remind myself to act natural.

C: *You feel considerable confidence in this way of living.*

A: You mean the method of correction I have started. Well, yes. It is just a little hard to do it. There is one thing that bothers me. I have read that after a person hides his feelings so long, that when he gets old he goes to the other extreme and shows his feelings too much.

C: You are afraid that might happen to you.

A: Well, I would be striving for it if it did. This is what the book said would happen . . . oh, it might not happen to me. I don't know.

C: You are not sure you need to worry too much about it.

A: Yes. It said after he goes to that extreme, well, then he will make a normal halfway adjustment.

C: So you are hoping that this will lead to a good adjustment.

In a later interview the student went on to describe incidents which had been embarrassing to him.

C: If you get into an embarrassing situation, just realizing that you handle it better when you act natural helps.

A: Yes. It is easier to bear if I just act natural and act myself. I don't care so much any more.

C: You just accept the fact that you don't "hitch" too well, and let it go at that.

A: Yes.

During the next interview the client described how he felt when an embarrassing silence occurred.

A: We can't just sit here saying nothing.

C: Kind of disturbing to you.

A: Yeah. I don't know, maybe it shouldn't be. Yet, here doing nothing, I become conscious of myself.

C: You just feel you have to think up something to say and then that becomes uncomfortable.

A: I do that sometimes outside, too. I will be with somebody and we will

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[4] The client expresses fear of a hostile world.

[5] The counselor appears to get a little ahead of the client, but rapport is good and the student doesn't resent it. Progress continues.

be talking for a while, but then all at once, it will seem like both of us run out of words. And I feel like I have to say something.

C: Of course you know that here if you decide not to say anything, that is your privilege, too. Sit and think. If anything comes up that you feel like saying, that is also your privilege.

A: Well, I don't think I talk too much nonsense in here.[6]

C: You feel like what we talk about does have something to do with your *own situation.*

A: Yes.

In the eighth interview A stated that he felt more confidence in himself but expressed fear that he could not maintain his social skills.

A: I have seen a few persons—one in particular who had a great deal of poise and was very capable of speaking in public. Later I recall seeing the same person become easily embarrassed and—I don't know how it could happen—what would cause that?

C: Ideas like that tend to increase your fear about that same thing happening to you.

A: Well, yes, a little bit. Mr. H told me that after he had been away for several years, he returned to teach speech again and when he gave *his first speech to the speech class, he was so scared he shook. He said he was more scared and nervous than the pupils. One has to keep* in condition. Some people, anyway.

C: You feel in your own case, just keep at this thing and not let yourself slip back into the previous condition.

A: Yes. He said I should get up in front of a group as often as I could, even if I have to push myself.

C: It still isn't pleasant.

A: No, but it is beginning to get more pleasant.

C: You can kind of loosen up.

A: Yes. It isn't the main cure, though. I think that it has to come from mental adjustment within . . . but that these other things help.[7]

C: You can use these to advantage, still it isn't as though you could deny the existence of this feeling.

A: Yes. I'm getting to where I feel people don't think I am as bad as I thought I was. . . . They don't criticize me as much as I thought they did.[8]

C: You feel more accepted.

A: I still have a tendency . . . oh . . . to play the part a little bit. I have

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[6] A positive feeling toward self is expressed.
[7] The client shows insight.
[8] Client expresses positive feeling toward the group.

the feeling of being *obliged* to be diplomatic, in some situations.

C: You wish you could feel free to just live yourself all the time.

A: Well, maybe a person really doesn't know what he wants to feel about it, to act free in all situations.

C: Maybe you can be accepted better by playing a role and be happier for it.

A: Yes . . . and accept that part of the role that is fitting the situation.

C: But be aware that that is what you are doing.

A: Yes and be aware that you are acting that part because you want to.

C: In other words, being able to accept yourself, too.

A: Yes.

When A went to the counselor he was under considerable stress and really wanted to work on his problem. He was very much aware of the feeling of the group and wanted group approval.

At first he expressed self-doubt and fear of a hostile world. As he poured out his feelings, he began to express more confidence in himself and more positive feelings toward the group.

The feeling of being understood and accepted by the counselor released him to talk about inner worries. The opportunity to discuss his handicaps aloud helped him to accept himself, after which he was able to interest himself in studies and activities and forget himself to some degree. His increasing ease made him more acceptable to the group.

A took the Strong Vocational Interest Blank test and its results indicated strong interests in farming, printing, teaching of mathematics, science, social studies, YMCA work, music, and art. Scored for masculinity-femininity, the test suggested a strong inclination toward the sciences and away from the verbal occupations. Parts of the Rorschach hinted at limited creative ability. Excellent achievement in mathematics and science supported the choice of scientific farming as an occupation. Deciding on agriculture as a vocation gave meaning to A's studies. He looked forward to college and partially forgot himself in his work.

Finding in group discussion that others also suffered from feelings of inferiority and self-consciousness helped also.

Case of Mental Illness. The following letters and comments will illustrate the kind of situation in which counseling is not indicated. The student described was either psychotic or prepsychotic and did not recognize that he had a problem. Environmental pressures were insufficient to create stress and he was not willing to work on his problem.

The student was referred to the counselor in 1949 for minor classroom disturbances, and the counselor discovered that he had been referred for vocational guidance in 1946. Test results indicated above-average ability,

very superior spatial relations ability, no apparent acute personality problems, and interests similar to those of social service workers and businessmen. After learning his test results, although he had no apparent need for counseling, he returned repeatedly to take further tests. During the next three years, at his own suggestion, he took five tests of mental ability, three tests of mechanical ability, four interest tests, two personality tests, and other miscellaneous aptitude and achievement tests. During this time he was reported several times for disturbing classes.

In 1949, he repeated the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. Although the original test in 1946 indicated that adjustment in all areas fell within the normal range, the second test suggested tendencies toward schizophrenia with a score so extreme that less than 2 per cent of the population exceed it.[9] A tendency to withdraw from reality was observed by the counselor. Facial expressions were observed to be inconsistent with the student's remarks. For example, he smiled pleasantly while describing a sad experience. The counselor decided to refer the student to a psychiatrist in a neighboring town.

The psychiatrist reported that the student appeared to feel that he did not need treatment and therefore did not have the motivation to participate in treatment. He stated:

As you noted, he could not focus on any current problem. He rambled about in a most obsessive, indecisive way indicating considerable confusion and looseness of thought. He is lost in a diffusion of pseudo-intellection concerning unrealistic abstractions about moral and ethical values, the significance and purpose of life, and superficial philosophical ruminations about value. These seem to represent for him his tenuous efforts to retain some hold with reality. At the same time, it seems that such ruminations are supporting to his self-esteem, and he smilingly and somewhat inappropriately accepts them as evidences of his own superiority. Because he has these satisfactions, it seems that he does not want them disturbed by participating in treatment at this time.

As you recognize, his insecurities about himself are secondarily manifested in his attempting to find some magical solution to his indecision by taking the psychological tests. . . .

I agree with you that his personality organization is precarious. It is unfortunate that he cannot participate in treatment. We will have to wait until such time as he feels the inner need to do so.

The doctor predicted that some crisis would be necessary to bring to the attention of the client that he was really in need of help. If he found it necessary to become self-supporting, or if because of some extreme violation he were expelled from school, he might be sufficiently under stress to get down to work on his problem.

[9] Discrepancy between the results of test and retest suggest discretion be used in the interpretation of limited test data.

One very trying aspect of this problem is that while this student was potentially dangerous to morale and possibly to other students, yet until he committed an act of violence, the school principal was not in a position to remove him from school. Apparently little could be done for the student himself and very little could be done to protect the group from him. Possibly with counseling the student might finish out the year without a serious crisis. If one occurred, it might furnish the motivation to work on his problem. In the case of a serious offense, the school authorities could point to their records and correspondence to show that steps had been taken to solve the problem. In these, they were somewhat protected from public criticism.

Environmental Therapy. Environmental therapy is employed by both directive and nondirective counselors, as well as school authorities, social workers, and other welfare agencies. Rogers (190:61) describes the delinquent child living in a "delinquency area" or the subnormal in competition with normal children and others in situations where there is no solution, as "unable to reorganize attitudes sufficiently to meet life on a normal basis." Environmental treatment, he says, must be the primary approach. The nondirective counselor does not commonly play a direct part in environmental therapy. He may recommend to the juvenile court, the schoolteacher, or parent or welfare worker that the child be placed in a foster home, accelerated, hospitalized, tutored, or otherwise treated, but the client will not necessarily be informed of the counselor's act. The court or school may withhold punishment as long as the child is receiving counseling, but the counselor maintains an accepting attitude, and in the counseling interview the client is made increasingly responsible for working on his problem.

Motivation for the client to recognize and work on his problem is sometimes derived from environmental demands. Rogers (190:54) says, "The delinquent from a gang neighborhood may have little or no inner conflict over his activities, but stress and tension are created when the community imposes its standards, which are in conflict with his own. The student may have no psychic struggle over his inadequate work until the college creates psychological stress by its punitive threats." In fact, many counselors believe counseling is relatively ineffective unless the client is under stress or at least motivated to work on his problem.

Rogers (190:54ff.) recognizes the value of good leadership and recreational opportunities, adequate school curriculum, placement in foster homes, and other types of environmental therapy.

Removing external factors which interfere with directive counseling was discussed by Paterson, Schneidler, and Williamson (166:294) in their book, *Student Guidance Techniques*. Changing home conditions, arranging social contacts, and other measures were mentioned. ·

Carr (39:167) says the social worker can treat the delinquent by modifying his environment, changing his environment, or changing his attitude toward his environment. Environmental therapy is indicated whenever

1. The client is in a situation where he cannot succeed and where normal satisfactions are impossible.

2. Counseling and recovery are being hindered by external factors such as inharmonious home, bad company, unsympathetic teacher, etc.

3. The environment prevents the maximum development of client's capacities as in the case of unsuitable curriculum, overcritical parents, etc.

4. The client is psychotic or subnormal.

5. The client is dangerous to the community.

Environmental therapy is seldom a substitute for counseling, but the two work well together. The school administrator is in a position to employ it. He can transfer a troubled student from one classroom or home room to another or from one adviser to another if it seems advisable. Intramurals, clubs, social events, assemblies afford opportunities for the use of individual talents and the development of personal security. Individualized curricula, remedial reading, opportunity rooms are only a few of the environmental possibilities.

Treatment of Specific Problems

Cheating. One of the specific discipline problems which vexes the school administrator is cheating. If cheating exists on a large scale, it may be because the emphasis in the school is on competition and grades rather than on the development of the student and the content of the courses. It may be an evidence of low morale among the student body or a pervasive hostility between faculty and students.

If it occurs in isolated instances, the individual's motivation should be analyzed. It may be habitual or it may be first offense. Copying another's work during an unexpected examination appears less serious than extensive preparation beforehand.

Cheating may be an act of aggression toward the school, an attempt to get even with the teacher, "show" the teacher, or beat him at his own game. The cheater may enjoy the risk involved in the sport. Cheating is sometimes employed as a means of aggression against a parent. The student unconsciously resents the parent's treatment and wishes to get even. He may unconsciously want to be caught.

A lack of conscience regarding systematic cheating suggests a serious emotional problem, and the student is in need of help.

The well-adjusted student knows that he is cheating himself. He eventually concludes that learning the subject matter is more important

than getting grades. The mature person will find other devices to solve his problem.

A chemistry student was reported for cheating, and his case was reviewed by a faculty-student committee set up for the purpose. He was repeating the course and had turned in a laboratory exercise which he had prepared for the previous year. The instructor stated he had announced in class that while some of the previous year's work could be used by repeaters, this particular exercise had not been assigned previously, so any of the previous year's work would not apply. Other students testified that the defendant had been late to class on the day the announcement was made and therefore did not hear it.

The student was reprimanded for inattention and tardiness but exonerated of the charge of cheating. He was required to turn in the assigned exercise before receiving credit.

Test results ranked this student in the lower 18 per cent of his class in ability. His interests were similar to those of printers, mechanics, and farmers.

In this case the school seems at fault. He was enrolled in an unsuitable class which he was permitted to repeat. He was charged with dishonesty and involved in an unpleasant if not traumatic experience more severe than his offense merited. There is certainly a question as to whether turning in the wrong assignment could be classified as cheating.

Counseling helped him to choose a more suitable course. Talking about the experience helped him to feel less outraged.

The folder of a physics student who had been discovered cheating was examined by the committee. He ranked in the lower 11 per cent (tested mental ability) of 1,000 students of his age. His scores on standardized mathematics and science tests were equally low. This student had been permitted to enroll in physics, chemistry, and advanced mathematics at the same time. The situation was one in which he could not succeed. No effort to give him any sort of enrollment guidance was apparent. He received an F on the test and was sent to a counselor for educational guidance.

Excerpts from tape-recorded interviews with a student who had been accused of cheating will show how other problems were involved.

M was caught cheating on an examination. She was given an F on the test and sent for counseling. Her father had been twice married and her mother three times. She was afraid to become engaged though she was very fond of her boy friend. She described the test situation:

M: I waited until the last minute and then crammed.

C: Didn't want to study and put it off as long as you could.

M: Yeah, I did. I stayed up real late and then I wished I had kept up all along.

C: You don't like yourself very well for putting it off so long.

M: No. What helps you to understand? Last time you seemed to understand my situation perfectly. Lots of people would say, "Well, I can't imagine that!"

C: You like to be understood.

M: Well, I like to meet somebody sometimes who appreciates some of the things I have done pretty well. I think I want sympathy or something.

C: Sometimes you feel you want sympathy.[10]

M: No, not any more. I used to.

C: You feel a little bit, though, that it is pretty rugged—going through some of that stuff.

M: If I had any children, I think I would stay married until they were old enough to take care of themselves.

C: You don't like being left alone.

M: No, I don't. I would just figure, "I have just got myself in this mess, I will see it through for my kids' sake."

C: You resent this fact that you were left alone.

M: Yes, I do.

M expressed bitterness and resentment toward her parents for several interviews. She eventually came to the decision that she must work out her own plans without help from them.

Tests indicated that her mental ability and reading ability were about average. Her grades were superior to excellent in English, social studies, and home economics and medium to superior in mathematics and science. Her efforts to capture security made her overachieve. When she found herself unprepared, she was tempted to copy another student's answers rather than jeopardize her hard won security. There was some evidence that her test scores did not express her full ability. A tendency toward depression may have interfered with her responses to standardized tests.

After M relieved herself of the feelings of aggression toward her parents, she said, "They were unhappy. They didn't know what else to do. Maybe they were doing their best. Anyway, now I'm almost grown. I must make my own plans."

She decided to free herself from home ties as soon as possible. A beautician's course would make her self-supporting in a relatively short time.

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[10] The counselor failed to define correctly. Possibly "approval" or "appreciation" or "understanding" would have expressed the need of the client. Possibly this would have been more accurate, "You feel you are not understood."

Counseling relieved some of her anxieties, and feeling accepted by the counselor gave her some security. She did not repeat her offense. Aside from improved personal security, another factor influenced her behavior. She found that cheating did not contribute to security.

Helping the less serious offender may consist of an intellectual analysis of the values involved, remedial reading, or time-budgeting suggestions. Counseling the seriously maladjusted cheater, as in other serious cases, would necessitate recognizing the basic motivations and feelings operating on the student.

Unfounded Accusations. Care should be taken not to make unfounded accusations. Aside from the damage which might be done to the personality of the accused and the prestige of the teacher, the school may be put in an indefensible position. Such an incident occurred recently in a public institution, as a result of which the school was threatened with a lawsuit.

John Foley (70:569ff.) reports in his article on discipline in the autumn, 1947, issue of *Educational and Psychological Measurements*, that, of 103 students charged during one year with discipline violations at the University of Minnesota, 30 were found not guilty of charges made. This proportion indicates that such cases should be treated with consideration and thoroughly investigated before any action is taken.

Thefts. Aside from the individual inconvenience and actual hardship resulting from thefts, the whole student body can suffer a serious letdown in morale. A lack of *esprit de corps* was plainly noticeable among the members of a basketball team when it became evident that one of their own squad was stealing watches, money, pens, and other valuables from them. The tension increased as each began to suspect the other. Interest in practice was desultory and scoring suffered.

It took weeks after the thief was unmasked to restore the morale of the team and student body. Strategy was used to discover his hiding place and identify him, but counseling was employed to discover his aggressions toward his home and the deprivations which led to his actions.

Various motivations behind stealing include a craving for sweets provoked by a low basal rate of metabolism. the desire for prestige among playmates or members of the opposite sex, revenge for real or fancied wrongs, and the desire for adventure or other satisfying activity.

Destruction of School Property. A school superintendent leaned from his office window and asked furiously, "Why did you do that?" A small boy who had just jabbed a hole through a school football replied, "Sir! I had no motive!" The meaningless scrawls and cuts on schoolroom desks, toilet walls, and library books have offended schoolteachers for as long as schools have existed. A certain amount of destruction is inevitable, but wholesale defacement is symptomatic of some underlying problem.

One superintendent attacked the problem from two angles. As a part of a long-term program he worked to enrich the curriculum and extra-class program, to provide for the needs of students, and to build up pride in the school and unity among the students. At the same time, he had the walls and furniture repainted regularly with quick-drying paint. Eventually the writing and marking failed to reappear. He forced them each time to deface a clean, fresh surface, and students did not have the nerve to do it. "John loves Mary" written on the wall is sure to suggest to the reader to write a similar legend. Repainting removed the suggestion. Eventually, growing disapproval among the students themselves and pride in their school took care of a large part of the problem. The new extra-class program offered substitute activities. The temporary cost was considerable, but the permanent saving and developing morale made it worth while.

Supplying missing information sometimes prevents the recurrence of a misdemeanor. Painting the light bulb black in the school coal bin seemed very clever to a group of grade school boys. The janitor, groping around in the dark, dislodged the door to a chute and narrowly escaped being crushed to death by the falling coal. The boys, who were fond of the janitor, were conscience-stricken when they learned of his experience, and the prank was never repeated.

On the other hand an incident during which a piano was thrown off the stage required more elaborate treatment, attention to a problem in group morale, counseling a maladjusted student leader, reorganization of noon-hour supervisors, and improving the disciplinary methods of the music teacher.

Destruction of equipment and other property led to an investigation of student government and social program at one college. The fact that a large segment of the student body was not participating in the government or social program seemed related to the outbreak. An effort to provide opportunities for a large number of students apparently forestalled further demonstrations.

An act of destruction may spring from the desire of the destroyer to get the attention of his classmates, to get even with his teacher or principal or dean, or to relieve feelings of aggression toward what he considers to be a hostile world.

Destruction of property in a college dormitory was reduced through attention to the needs of the residents. The dormitory building was a temporary structure, remodeled from surplus army barracks. It was drab, not too comfortable, and contained no lounge or recreation room. During a meeting between college authorities and the residents, it was suggested that a partition between two rooms be knocked out to provide space for a Ping-pong table, card tables, and a record player. These suggestions were

followed and a dormitory counselor was employed. House officers were elected and house meetings initiated. These measures helped considerably to reduce friction and disorder.

Sex Offenses. The informed and perceptive counselor is surprised that there are not more sex offenses, considering the economic and conventional curbs to natural impulses and the unrealistic way in which the subject is sometimes treated by parents. It hardly seems fair to saddle the high school principal or teacher with a problem for which he is so little responsible.

The adolescent is curious and half-ashamed of his own body, plagued by a growing physical need for which there is no acceptable answer. Society is implacable on the subject, and little help can be expected from the parents. They themselves may be bewildered. Oftentimes they are unable to understand their own sexual needs. Movies, periodicals, songs, radio programs, and advertising mediums of all kinds are consciously designed to appeal to erotic emotions. The problems are baffling but inevitable.

Causes of sex offenses are often traced to childhood experiences. The discovery of two innocent children exploring each other can throw the two mammas into hysteria. The scolding and shame connected with such an incident may contribute to an unwholesome attitude toward sex and, eventually, sex offenses.

If a perfectly natural curiosity toward sex is thwarted and unsatisfied, the child will get his information from pornographic literature and lewd stories of more experienced playmates. If references to the subject are veiled and evasive, the child may assume that any kind of sex behavior is very bad, and he will develop a feeling of guilt toward the whole subject. A feeling of guilt connected with a natural need can produce a damaging personality conflict.

If the child does not receive the love and attention to which he is entitled or if he is exploited or neglected by his parents, then sex may assume an abnormal importance in his life. He may try to compensate through sexual experience for the lack of other legitimate satisfactions. If he is denied the security of parental affection and support, he may seek personal security in the sexual act.

The adult is accustomed to thinking of the high school student as a child. It was to many a shocking revelation, not yet fully accepted by parents and teachers, to read in the Kinsey (109:219*ff.*) report of the high frequency of sexual acts among adolescent boys. The widespread occurrence of this sort of thing hardly puts this kind of behavior in the category of abnormality. Schoolteachers recognize that human beings are ready for reproduction shortly after reaching thirteen years of age. Knowing that marriage is not possible for many years, they can expect problems in this area.

Among the most common outlets is masturbation. According to the Kinsey report, the practice is almost universal among boys before marriage. Children are sometimes told that they will "go crazy" if they masturbate and they are threatened with other horrible consequences. Medical authorities report little evidence of harm from masturbation unless practiced to excess, except for the personality damage which results from guilt and anxiety.

The question is, of course, What should the school man do? It is not feasible or desirable to eliminate standards for behavior. Those who advocate that early marriages be subsidized are not very realistic; the parents to whom this suggestion is made could often use a subsidy themselves. Probably the best course is to offer as much sane sex education as the community will accept, along with the recognition that sexual needs are normal and urgent in the adolescent. An effort should be made to establish acceptable standards of behavior, but to attach as little guilt as possible to the student's attempts to satisfy his perfectly normal needs.

In our school systems it is quite a common practice to display an electric motor and explain it piece by piece to a class. How much more important it would be to explain to the students the operation of their own bodies, in which they are much more interested and which they also need to understand. Such films as *Human Growth,* produced by Eddie Albert (2) for the University of Oregon, are being used in some schools for teaching the development of the sex organs.

With reference to the motor, there is no fear or threat or misunderstanding. With regard to the inescapable problem of sex, there is much. We are not saying that dispensing adequate information will stop sexual irregularities. We are saying that the more vividly students are brought face to face with reality, the less possibility there will be of permanent damage to their personalities and the greater will be the possibility of making acceptable choices.

Like other kinds of undesirable conduct, the probability of occurrence is increased if there is little else to do. An adequate social program with opportunities for all to participate reduces the probability of offenses. A student who has adequate social life and the opportunity to meet members of the opposite sex under wholesome conditions is not so inclined to seek other satisfactions and pleasures. If he feels the approval of the group, he is reluctant to jeopardize it by deviating from the approved behavior patterns.

The individual who violates the rules of society should be counseled if possible. Possibly, the offender can be helped to evaluate his goals and to modify his behavior to contribute to them.

Causes for deviations are often the same as those which produce other

kinds of unacceptable conduct. One girl who was discovered in an embarrassing situation on the school ground was warned that she might be asked to leave school. She said she hoped she would. She said she intended having a baby so that she would have to get married. She felt no success in the classroom or school activities. Investigation of the home showed crowded living conditions, a stepfather and three stepbrothers and stepsisters. There was conflict between the children and their foster parents and with each other. The girl hoped to escape from the turmoil to a home of her own.

Another girl who was being counseled because of sexual irregularities stated that she had never felt accepted among her schoolmates. She had decided that she would do whatever was necessary to become popular. She was attempting to substitute sexual desirability for social satisfactions. The sex act is a part of the love pattern, and love and acceptance were what she desired.

The counselor is sometimes obliged to decide that counseling is not indicated. A situation of this nature arose in the case of a student who was interrupted in the sex act in a vacant classroom during a school party. Both students involved were counseled, and the girl responded to treatment and seemed to be making progress. The boy, however, refused to believe that a problem existed. He argued with the principal, asserting that the practice was almost universal and that he was just unfortunate in being caught.

The boy was placed on probation and sent to a counselor, with the understanding that he could remain in school only as long as he saw his counselor weekly. The principal stated that his status depended on his ability to grow in the counseling situation. Evaluation was set for the end of the semester. He talked brightly of school, vocational choice, and other matters and refused to work on his problem. Test results suggested a tendency to be unable to learn from experience, to rebel against law and convention, and to withdraw from reality. Other test results showed flights of fantasy and a reluctance to accept responsibility conflicting with a desire to be independent.

An investigation of the boy's past behavior revealed similar offenses in the past. The characteristic in all violations was the utter naïveté of the boy's reasoning. He repeated the same offense in almost the same circumstances with every prediction of being caught. Yet each time the consequences came as a surprise to him. He rationalized each time that actually no offense had been committed. Test results and past behavior formed a pattern from which the prediction could be made that it might not be possible for him to change his behavior. Since probation failed to

put him under enough stress to cause him to work on his problem, the prognosis was discouraging.

In such a case, the high school principal or college dean would be almost obliged to suspend the student or expel him. Referral to a psychiatrist would be indicated if it were possible. An attempt could be made to work out something with the parents. In this case, the counselor interviewed the father, who felt that his son's behavior indicated some failure on the part of the parents. He discovered for himself during the conversation that the home life had, in effect, excluded the son from normal satisfactions and participation in the activities of the family. He was motivated to change his own behavior and to try to effect a change in his wife. The counselor cautioned him not to expect complete, immediate rehabilitation in his son and that he might anticipate more antisocial behavior before progress could be detected.

Window peeping, exposure of the genitals, sadism, homosexuality, and other perversions and borderline behavior sometimes confront the principal, dean, or counselor. In handling the situation he wishes to protect the members of the group from harm or unpleasantness and, if possible, to rehabilitate the deviate. Portions of case records are given here to illustrate the type of problem.

A couple of high school students called on the high school principal one night to report that a window peeper had been observed by them.

He was watching a group of girls who were playing games at a party. The couple cut across the lawn and came upon the intruder unexpectedly. They could see him clearly by the light from the window. They were surprised to see that he was wearing high-heeled shoes. The couple asked him what he was doing. He replied that he had come for his date. They told him he should go to the front door in the usual way.

When they went inside, they found the girls in an uproar. They had seen the face at the window and were frightened. After thinking the incident over, they decided that there was something strange about it. They identified the boy by looking in the yearbook and notified the principal.

The principal called him in the next morning. He denied the accusation. The principal called in the couple who had reported the incident and they identified him. He repeated that there must be some mistake.

The principal reviewed an entrance form which had been filled out by the student. The boy's answers indicated that he felt unhappy, daydreamed frequently, had too few social contacts, and had trouble in making himself study. His high school record showed ten inferior grades and two medium grades during the first three years.

The principal discussed these data with the boy, who reluctantly agreed

that a problem was indicated. He suggested that no action be taken until the boy try to explore his own behavior and motivations to discover what made him behave in a nonconformative way.

The counselor reported that the tests suggested superior intelligence, average achievement in English, superior reading ability, and superior achievement in mathematics. His interests showed no clear-cut pattern except for leanings toward verbal occupations. (Verbal occupations are more often pursued by women.) Personality tests ranked him poor in social and emotional adjustment. Judging from the tests, the counselor suspected that he was supersensitive, stubborn, and rigid, with a tendency to retaliate for real or fancied wrongs. Other tests suggested the possibility that he had not been able to incorporate socially approved practices into his personality. Preoccupation with sex, flattening of feeling, general immaturity, poor ability to organize knowledge, and strong trends toward homosexuality and sadism were indicated.

The counselor believed that his window peeping was an act of aggression, motivated by a desire to frighten or hurt the girls. The student was apparently identified with his mother and had interests similar to women. His sadistic impulses were apparently connected with some sort of homosexual pleasure, indicated by his desire to wear women's clothes while committing hostile acts and other evidence.

Although his natural inclination was toward feminine activities, he had been trying to force himself into masculine activities for conventional reasons and possibly in order to compete better with his father for his mother's affections. Contributing to the problem was the fact that he had never had as much of his mother's attention as he would have liked. This might account for a feeling of hostility toward all women and girls.

The tensions and anxieties produced by his inner conflicts and the confusion in his own mind with regard to goals and how to reach them inhibited his efforts in school.

He decided that he did have a problem and went regularly to see the counselor. When the school term ended, he was still trying to reconcile his conflicting desires, but he had behaved reasonably well during the concluding months of school.

Love-struck Youngsters. A common problem and one which seems a perfectly normal manifestation is that of "necking" in the halls or at school functions. A sympathetic teacher called in for counseling one couple who had been draped around each other in home room. She treated them courteously, speaking first about the need of all to be loved. She accepted the fact that their affection for each other was natural. They developed the attitude that they did not want to let the public in on something so important and intimate, that love-making was a private affair.

Classroom Disturbances. Shooting paper wads, whispering, and throwing chalk can cause as much concern as real delinquency. The explanation may be poor teaching methods, lack of administrative support for the teacher, student leadership gone wrong, or personal problems among the offenders.

A daily nuisance in the fourth grade was found to have an I.Q. of 140 but a serious deficiency in reading. His teacher, who adhered rigidly to the curriculum, had been unwilling to make any concessions to his individual needs. He was bored with the classwork and rebellious because of his inadequacies.

Remedial reading improved his skills and helped to restore his self-esteem. A few special reports on subjects of interest to him were permitted by the teacher, after consultation with a counselor. The privilege of contributing information not previously covered by the rest of the class was stimulating to him.

Investigation disclosed conflict between him and his parents. A study of his behavior showed that he was especially refractory after conflict with his parents. The parents and classroom teacher cooperated in finding evidences of progress to praise. A growing interest in his subjects and restored self-esteem almost eliminated his behavior problem.

One teacher who was very successful in avoiding classroom disturbances began each year with a little discussion of sophistication, a subject in which all of the girls and most of the boys were interested. As discussion developed the pupils began to feel that sailing airplanes and making peculiar noises was grade-schoolish. The sentiment in the group came to be critical of any member who manifested ignorance of the "thing to do."

Sometimes the classroom is disrupted by manifestations of hysteria. A very bright student was absent during a long convalescence following an appendectomy. After she returned, she became the center of attention when she lost her voice for a time. This episode was followed by the loss of the use of her right arm. Physicians could find no physical cause for the symptoms, but the arm began to look drawn.

Sexual relations with her father was suspected. The high school principal became interested in the case and asked her to work in his office as receptionist. Gradually, as she felt success in the office and classroom, the use of her arm returned.

She showed an aptitude for bookkeeping and finance. Eventually, she was elected treasurer of the student body. After she began to feel secure as an important part of the school and a member of the group, her physical symptoms disappeared.

This recovery is very unusual. A case of this sort usually responds only to deep psychotherapy, if ever. A hysteric with a disabled arm may ap-

parently respond to treatment for a time and suddenly develop a very real pain in his abdomen or a blind eye.

The girl described probably developed her conversional symptoms partially as a result of a dilemma which she could not solve and partially as a result of compensating attention received during her convalescence. When she received favorable and satisfying attention for other reasons, she began to improve. Feeling understood, accepted, and recognized by the principal was undoubtedly a factor in her recovery.

Disorderly Conduct. The item of disorderly conduct covers more serious offenses than mere classroom disturbances. Sometimes disorderly conduct can be eliminated by utilizing the talents of the offender.

The janitor of a small school complained that he had been obliged several times to clean up human excretion in the upper hall. The offender apparently remained in the building after the janitor was gone and unlatched a window through which he reentered in the early morning. The offender was identified, but there was no positive proof. Finally, when he was caught leaving the school building late at night, the principal talked seriously with him. He showed vigorous aggressions against the school and faculty. His act showed exactly what he thought of them.

The principal asked him if he really wanted to come to school. He replied, after thinking it over, that he liked some of the boys and some of the activities. The principal asked him what he wanted to achieve in school. It was obviously a new idea to him. He replied thoughtfully that "kids his age just went to school" and the "old man would raise hell if he didn't." The principal asked if the boy could think of any way in which the school could be more useful to him. Upon his own suggestion, the boy was given a job with the stage crew, and the coach was asked to use him, if possible, in running off a tournament. He performed well in both places and was praised for his work. Later he assisted as sort of traffic cop, handling the crowd at ball games and school carnivals. Gradually he built up self-esteem and pleasant associations with the school. His most offensive acts were not repeated.

A strong, morose boy was observed threatening other boys. He habitually carried knives, brass knuckles, and blackjacks. His general-science teacher found that he had unusual ability to repair and build machines. He was asked if he would like the job of servicing the school bus. He applied himself to the task almost with passion, polishing and greasing constantly. When he was permitted to drive a group to an out-of-town game or contest, he discarded his habitually foul dungarees and appeared clean and decently clothed. Because he was able to establish a place for himself

among the students and play a role which he liked, serious offenses were probably prevented.

The entire first string of a small-town basketball team was discovered by the new coach to have been drinking. The opposing team was warming up and the audience was waiting for the starting whistle. The coach blandly ran in the second squad for the entire game, while the stars sat on the bench and gritted their teeth and sweated. The scrubby, stringy little sophomores played far beyond their usual speed and won by one point.

The lesson was learned without harangue or lecture. The incident was not rehashed, and no further punishment was administered. The punishment which accrued was so rational and came so promptly upon the heels of the offense that it was extremely effective.

A problem in discipline sometimes develops as a result of a change in teachers. Such a situation arose in a small school when a beloved basketball coach was replaced. The new coach was inclined to set higher standards than the previous one. He practiced longer hours and prescribed more rigid training rules. The team characteristically tried out the limits.

The day before an important game, all members of the squad failed to report to the last study hall. They were reported missing and the principal and coach tried to decide what to do. They were certain the boys had not left the building, but they were no place to be found. The principal caught sight of a cap outside the second-story hall window. He closed and locked the window and quietly returned to his office to await developments. School was dismissed and the trapped culprits waited on the second-story roof with no way to get down. Finally they were obliged to tap on the window and ask to be released. They climbed back in, looking very sheepish. The principal asked them if they would like to talk about their problem. He stated that their action, although not actually harmful, was a sign of aggressive feelings toward the school and suggested that perhaps he ought to know what produced them. Maybe they could be remedied.

Group discussion brought out the following points: (1) a certain kind of status among the students was acquired by going just as far as possible without actually transgressing; (2) a change in rules required a change in behavior and required effort.

The principal asked them what, if anything, should be done about the situation. They considered the problem and agreed they should be paddled. The principal complied while each boy suffered silently. The punishment helped assuage their feelings of guilt.

This incident was actually constructive in effect, because it precipitated

an opportunity for the boys to verbalize their resentments and their manner of expressing them. The little crisis put them under stress and produced motivation for them to understand themselves. When they saw themselves objectively, they felt they had been acting as if "they couldn't take it." They felt obliged to demonstrate that they could take it. After several weeks of complying with the new rules, they felt enough reward in improved skills to cooperate fully.

The ringleader in the revolt had been a particular favorite of the former coach and he was missing some of the affection and attention to which he was accustomed. When he realized his dependency on his former teacher, he rejected his pattern of behavior and was the first to express a desire to conform. He continued to be the leader in a constructive fashion. His satisfactions then accrued from the esteem of his fellow students and the achievements of the group. Later, the responsibility for establishing and maintaining training rules was assumed by the team.

Parking Violations. Congestion around one school building became so acute that the authorities decided drastic action must be taken. Traffic was impeded; the lives of students were endangered; and in case of fire, it would have been impossible to get the fire truck close to the building. Without consulting student opinion or informing the students, the administration made a rule to restrict parking in certain areas. A lack of cooperation on the part of the students caused the administration to impose more and more strict penalties. Finally, they announced that after four violations the offender would be expelled.

A problem presented itself when one of the football heroes, a superior student, ignored the rule. After noting four violations, the high school principal conferred with other authorities and they decided to give him severe warning but not to invoke the penalty. After seven violations were reported, the matter could no longer be ignored, so the boy was suspended. His graduation would be delayed and he would be ineligible for football as a result of the penalty.

More than half the students signed a petition in behalf of the culprit. Committees of students called on all administrators. Indignation mounted. Morale wilted. Parking violations increased.

As a result of this incident, administrators were obliged to give the matter more serious attention. It became obvious that the rule, although it seemed reasonable at the time it was made, was ill advised. Student opinion was consulted on how to solve the problem. The students then became more aware of the gravity of the problem, felt more responsible, became more cooperative, and offered helpful suggestions.

Town boys and girls who lived close to the school were asked to leave their cars at home. A vacant lot was located near the school and reserved

for farm boys and girls and town students who lived a long distance away. These students were given special stickers for their cars. Student traffic directors were rotated to help route cars at noon and after school. The cooperation of parents was solicited, and possible solutions were discussed at parent-teacher association meetings. Home-room sponsors led discussions of the problem among the students. Lessons in safe driving were arranged.

Attendance Violations. Probably one of the most important symptoms of something wrong at home or at school is absence from school. It may be that the child finds no motivation for schoolwork. Possibly he feels no success in schoolwork.

Exploring for other motivations, one needs to examine the home conditions. In one case, a pupil did not appear in school for four days, and the nurse reported no illness. The attendance officer visited the home and found that the father was ill and unemployed. The boy had taken a job to help support the family. Another fourteen-year-old truant was found caring for six younger children while the mother worked.

In another case, the attendance officer found that the father and mother were not interested in the boy's going to school and that the boy was indifferent. The officer recommended a part-time job and part-time school.

These attendance violations were not malicious or mischievous. To insist on attendance in school would have put these pupils in an impossible situation.

Most school laws require the child between the ages of six and sixteen to attend school, and most schools make an honest attempt to enforce this ruling. However, personnel workers have thought in some instances that it would be better for the child to drop school and take a job or drop most of his schoolwork and take a part-time job.

A study of such practices in the East Lansing, Michigan, public schools (149) suggests that if we adapt our school practices to the needs of the child, he will stay in school longer and receive more benefit from it. It is better for the child to take less than a full load than to drop out altogether. The situational criterion is probably more feasible than the age criterion.

A program of this type is best operated with trained personnel workers. Personnel workers usually investigate much more deeply into the needs of the child and the home situation than does the attendance officer.

Occasionally a student stays away from class because of a poor teacher or instructor. Occasionally a student stays away because he already knows the subject matter presented. Certainly students who have mastered the subject matter taught in a given class should not be punished for staying away. The school is primarily responsible for violations of that sort.

One school principal found that parents kept their children out of

school for trivial reasons, to take a shopping trip or go to the beauty shop or for a dress fitting. He put on a publicity campaign to inform the parents concerning the basis for state aid. When the parents realized that they were costing the school district money, they became noticeably more careful not to interfere with attendance.

A common reason for not wanting to go to school is that the pupil feels no success or satisfaction in his classwork. Parents of a first-grader who came home every morning at ten o'clock finally in desperation asked a policeman to take the small truant to school. After that he gave up and conformed, but he hated school so thoroughly that he wouldn't even attend the playground in the summer or entertainments at the school building at night.

He could not compete successfully with his classmates. He felt absolutely no recognition from his teacher, no reward for his efforts. Naturally, he sought to escape from a situation in which he could not succeed. Counseling or play therapy was needed. More understanding from his teacher would have helped. He was the youngest in his grade and very immature. Another year in kindergarten might have helped to solve the problem.

A boy who was repeating the sixth grade with the same teacher as the previous year came to the point during the second semester where he felt he couldn't face another day in her room. She represented failure and coercion to him. Special permission was granted for him to finish the year in another school, where he achieved satisfactorily and attended regularly.

A girl who was absent on account of illness was suspected of malingering. In her case, a reading disability seemed to be the major problem. Fear and shame connected with reading caused real physical symptoms of nausea and headaches. Remedial reading helped her to compete with her classmates and also gave her a feeling that someone cared about her welfare. Her attendance improved. Repeated experiences of this sort make the therapist wonder whether or not improvement comes as a result of improved skills or because of experiencing the personal interest which all people want and need.

Congregating in the Halls and Lavatories. Traffic problems such as congregating in the halls and lavatories before school and at noon were reported as the most common problem among 225 high schools in the Middle West (91:269ff.). The high school principals of these schools reported almost no use of student councils and student juries in solving discipline problems.

Presenting the problem to the student-faculty council would be a logical procedure. The matter might even be presented for discussion by the entire student body in home rooms.

If the students agreed, the students might be routed to home rooms upon their arrival at school. Activities could be planned with a student in charge or time left for "visiting." There is nothing really wrong with that. Discussion of the matter might include the hazards or inconveniences involved, such as traffic jams in case of fire, discommoding other students, etc. A reading lounge or radio room might be a solution.

Clogged halls between classes may mean that the period for passing to classes is too short or too long; lockers may be inconveniently placed; buildings may be incorrectly planned. Student traffic managers might be elected to help solve the problem.

Bullying and Fighting. Bullying and fighting on the school grounds and in the building may be provoked because of the school's inadequacies or personality problems on the part of the offenders. The bully is frequently overcompensating for obvious weaknesses in other areas. He may be at the foot of his class or rejected socially, or he may be bullied at home and just passing the treatment on to others. The rejected child may seek attention in that way.

The problem may result from lack of sufficient playground equipment or lack of supervision. Corrective measures would be the obvious ones: discussion among the students, securing more equipment, counseling the offenders, boxing and wrestling lessons for the boys, giving the ringleaders jobs they can do around the school, etc.

Equipment is a problem for the administrator with a limited budget. Sometimes the help of PTA's, women's clubs, businessmen's clubs, and other organizations can be enlisted.

Lying. Lying results when the child has oppressive fears, feelings of guilt, or the need to bolster his own self-esteem or when the rules are unduly restrictive. The student who lies is often one of whom perfection has been required by his parents or one who has frequently found himself in a dilemma for which there was no reasonable solution.

The child lies to keep from being punished or shamed before the group, he lies about others to punish them for real or fancied wrongs, or he boasts in an effort to gain status.

Sometimes a lie seems utterly senseless to the teacher, who finds himself unable to detect either malice or self-protection behind it. Sometimes the school child, confronted as he is with artificial taboos and restrictions, feels unidentified guilt. Booth Tarkington once described a situation in which two boys had really done a kind and generous thing, but having so often found themselves surprisingly in the wrong, kept the incident a secret for fear of having unwittingly committed another crime.

Counseling and environmental therapy are among the possible measures for the treatment of lying.

Interpersonal Conflict. The increased enrollment of married students has created problems on some college campus. Crowded quarters, inconveniences, community laundries, central bathhouses, and lack of privacy produced friction between the residents. Little quarrels over the laundry schedules, use of the clothes lines, sharing play equipment, disposing of garbage, and the like sometimes assume enormous proportions.

Conflicts can be reduced by developing units of self-government where community problems are discussed openly and a consensus reached. Each resident can have a part in making decisions which affect living conditions. Disagreements can be settled in discussion with one's peers. Public opinion can operate to control undesirable behavior. Cohesiveness can develop. A sense of security can derive from belonging to the community. Many questions can be decided by the group without troubling the college authorities.

However, contact should be maintained between the group and the student personnel staff. The dean of students or housing director should be available for consultation on matters of college requirements and democratic group procedures. Each year some training should be given in group processes. The student population changes rapidly, and some continuity is provided by maintaining a personnel officer as a consultant or sponsor.

Authority given to the governing body by the college should be clearly defined. Once delegated, it should not be taken away.

Disciplinary problems usually increase when economic conditions or international tensions produce general insecurity. Uncertainty is a highly frustrating state of mind. A person who is unable to make definite plans may grow tense and irritable. Study and work seem pointless. Previous goals no longer seem attainable. Scholarship standards are likely to drop. If this condition is general among the student body the students may resort to violence, property destruction, mass protests, or other means to relieve the tensions.

Insecurity among the faculty may also be transmitted to the students. If a drop in enrollment means a reduction of staff, each faculty member may feel that he might be the one to go. Preoccupation with personal security may interfere with his functioning with efficiency and understanding in his relations with students.

Insecurity among students and faculty predisposes to scapegoating, which sometimes takes the form of hostility toward a given administrator, department, or group of students. A new department or official is often the target.

If morale is already in a precarious state, student reaction to a general crisis is inclined to be more violent and uncontrollable than if measures

have already been taken to build up group unity, give the students a share in planning and decision making, keep the students informed, and explore and satisfy student needs.

Group discussions where students and faculty can air their complaints and exchange ideas would help people relieve their tensions and could produce helpful suggestions. Discussion leaders should be chosen for ability to understand and accept others and to regard complaints and criticisms objectively. Publicity in the college newspaper and through other channels about how the administration plans to meet the crisis could be helpful.

House mothers, advisers, and others who use referral channels could be alerted to detect and refer students in need of help.

Assembly speakers could be chosen who could speak with understanding and sympathy to the students and faculty.

A Positive Approach to Discipline

Punishing, policing, exhorting, curbing, and other authoritarian methods imply negativistic attitudes within the students. The results of the methods are often negative. Why should the discipline program not make use of the positive forces which exist within the human personality and methods which develop the personality instead of methods which restrict its development?

It is paradoxical that in the public school system of the United States, whose primary purpose it is to train for citizenship in a democracy, autocratic methods of discipline and teaching should have been employed so persistently. One would think it obvious that our system of government demands educational experience which would give practice in self-government and self-discipline.

A. S. Clayton (44:85*ff.*) expresses this opinion:

The notion of discipline as obedience seems to turn its back on democracy as a form of living and head us toward the leadership of the elite which characterized recent European and Asiatic nationalism. The concept of a robot citizenry acting without regard to consequences, obeying the orders of a general staff, a Fuehrer, or a living emperor is incompatible with the basic democratic conviction. . . . The problem is . . . that of finding ways of developing responsible, adaptive participation in the solving of pressing social problems.

The reluctance with which faculty members view the prospect of letting students think for themselves is reflected in the results of a faculty-rating study at one college. Students ranked lowest among 18 criteria the item "Stimulated thought" as least often experienced in their classes. (However, the fact that the rating was permitted indicates some freedom.)

Aside from the idealism which is innate in the democratic concept, democratic methods are better because they work better.

Under autocratic methods, when the boss is away the "kids" will play. The principal or teacher cannot possibly be present to exercise control over each student on every occasion where discipline is needed. After the democratic discipline program is underway, it is self-propelling. It is the only method which reaches around to every member. The democratic processes encourage real thought. The autocratic method promotes mindless conformity. Satisfactory habits of responding to autocratic situations do not carry over to situations where the authority is removed, because no learning has taken place, or because the students have learned this: "Somebody will do it for me."

Under the autocratic method students feel, "Here I am; make me learn; make me be good! It's your job; it's not mine!" Under the democratic method, the students feel, "This is a job for all of us. I help to make the decisions. I count. I am responsible."

If students are given all the information on both sides of a question and permitted to think about it, they have practice in arriving at a suitable conclusion. If they make a mistake and the results are unpleasant, learning also takes place. The tennis coach would not think of permitting a player to compete without practice, but schoolteachers often ignore the fact that graduates are without practice and experience in democratic living.

The democratic method of discipline works because it fits the basic motivations and temperament of human beings. It encourages a favorable attitude toward self. The individual likes to be recognized and given an opportunity to use his resources and his aptitudes. He likes to belong to a group and to count as a member of the group. The individual's opinion of himself is raised as he experiences the approval of the group. Ultimately he is as pleased by group achievement as by his own and he becomes identified with the group.

Evidence of some doubt regarding autocratic methods is shown in writings relating to army discipline and to discipline of the worker in industry. An excerpt from the U.S. Army Field Manual, *Leadership Courtesy and Drill* (242:5), reads, "Military discipline must not be a cowed state of subservience. American qualities of initiative and resourcefulness function best when obedience is inspired by an understanding of the objective and by loyalty to a cause. . . ."

Democratic procedures create an atmosphere in which mental hygiene is possible. The dignity of the individual is recognized. Individual rights are respected. Mutual respect is exercised. The individual is given an opportunity to develop skills and a resulting feeling of adequacy. As a re-

sult of acceptable behavior, he experiences satisfactions which fixate desirable behavior.

If an atmosphere of mental hygiene is to prevail, the following conditions are prerequisite:

1. A child must be given an opportunity to develop skills and a feeling of adequacy.

2. He must eventually become a member of the group, feel wanted in the group, feel ties with other members of the group, and feel that he contributes to group projects.

3. He must be asked to do only those tasks that he is potentially able to do.

4. He must have some time during the school week to have a good time socially.

5. He must feel sure of some approval and love from parents, teachers, and companions.

6. He must have the necessities of life.

Attitude of Faculty. If the child feels that the disciplinarian wants to help him live up to his own best potentialities, the discipline will probably be effective. If he feels that the disciplinarian wants to "change" him, his security, his self-esteem, his self-portrait are threatened and he will not be likely to be able to accept and internalize the values of the parent or teacher. One of the most frequent complaints, phrased in varying ways, is "My parents (or husband, etc.) do not like me as I am. They want to change me." The child protects himself by thinking, "I might want to be like someone else in some ways, but there isn't anyone else that I want to be. I don't really want to change places with anyone I know."

Organizing the School Community. If students are made responsible for their own actions, if they have a part in making decisions on rules by which they live, they can do for themselves things which no one else could ever make them do. Milosh Muntyan (150:168ff.) says, "Ultimately the disciplined individual is one who recognizes, accepts and acts upon modes of behavior deemed acceptable by the social group." The problem, he says, is making the group processes meaningful.

Participation in student-faculty juries, student-faculty legislatures, all-school social programs such as described in the preceding chapters are active learning situations. Democratic group procedures in the classroom and in student activities help to create a favorable climate for the development of self-discipline.

The school administrator does not commonly take advantage of the students' capacity for self-government. A study of discipline problems in 225 secondary schools ranks rudeness and inconsideration of other pupils as fifth out of 20 items in order of frequency. Other items relating to group harmony were rated eighth, eleventh, and twelfth. The author observes that only 5 per cent of the schools studied use student councils and student

juries to assist in problem solving. The percentage reporting that they never do is 80.4 (91:269ff.).

Faculty Advising. Provision for a faculty advising system implies good will and good intentions toward the student. Under a system of faculty advising, few students are overlooked. Some advisers are less skillful than others and some students receive less attention than others, but the system reaches around to a larger percentage of the students than any other. When the student's needs are met in this fashion, disciplining is easier.

Referral System. Information regarding the types of services offered by the school, how to make a referral, characteristics of maladjustment, etc., should be made available to the faculty, advisers, house mothers, club sponsors, and administration. Through early referral of potential problem students, it may be possible to avoid some disciplinary problems.

Administration

The administrator can measure the effectiveness of his discipline program in the degree to which it contributes to the growth and development of the student. If the majority of students mature, develop, and grow to be more useful and capable, then the disciplinary methods are effective. If they tend to become afraid, morose, or vicious and antisocial there may be something wrong with the disciplinary procedures.

Administrative Precautions. The administrator sets the stage for conformity or rebellion in the way he manages the building, assigns the teacher load, schedules classes, and establishes machinery for channeling the offender to the correct authority. Such physical conditions as heating, ventilation, and lighting affect conduct. Overloading the teacher makes him vulnerable to impatience and irritability.

The maximum use of the gymnasium, auditorium, and other school facilities contributes to good morale. Curriculum revision may be a remedial measure.

The way in which the administrator handles his staff has an effect on the behavior of the students. If he is democratic, open to suggestions from a faculty member, respectful of individual dignity, the attitudes of the teachers will probably be cooperative and harmonious. High morale among the faculty contributes to student morale.

Communication between all staff members is vitally important. The teacher has valuable information to contribute to the counselor, and the counselor can help the teacher to understand the troublemaker. All information should be assembled in a central file for the use of both.

Communications from the counselor to the teacher or the parents are more useful if they are framed in the language of the layman. It is a com-

mon habit of the trained psychologist to employ his own specialized jargon, with resulting confusion. Words which have a special meaning for the clinician may have an entirely different connotation for the average classroom teacher or parent.

The administrator should take responsibility for circulating information regarding discipline among all student and faculty groups. Acceptance of rules of all groups cannot be expected unless they are kept informed and permitted to discuss the rules.

Routine channeling of all offenders to a counselor could be attempted. Counseling all discipline cases, all failures, and all underachievers might be profitable. A system should be worked out for identifying students who are not participating in any activity, and each student should be given an opportunity for a private interview with faculty adviser or home-room sponsor and for joining some group if he wishes.

The conclusion is sometimes reached that routine channeling of discipline cases is unproductive because progress toward adjustment depends so much on the attitude of the counselee. Students who seek counseling usually profit more than those who are obliged to report. However, it may be possible that the student who is thus referred has further to go in making an adjustment than self-referred students. It is also possible that he makes more progress than would be made without help.

Discipline is a joint responsibility of administrator, teacher, personnel worker, and student. In order for the system to work, each must know what his responsibilities are. The administrator is the logical one to assume leadership in helping others to define their responsibilities.

When an offense occurs, the administrator is wise to proceed at a moderate pace. A thorough investigation should be made and all available information assembled. School records and test results should be reviewed. The accuser and accused should meet and confer with the administrator. If there is any doubt about fixing the blame, all concerned with the incident should be questioned.

Locating Trouble Areas. Prevention of outbreaks is much better than cure. Potential offenders can often be identified and treated before they have an opportunity to stray. Test results can help the administrator to locate potential deviates.

Experimentation with the Bell Adjustment Inventory indicated that two sections of the test could be used to identify possible troublemakers. Unsatisfactory scores on the sections intended to measure emotional and home adjustment isolated most of the principal violators among college freshmen at Stephens College (276).

Caution is recommended, however, in handling cases thus identified. A small number of the students who had unsatisfactory scores on the two

sections of the test did not become violators. They were able to make a satisfactory adjustment to college life in spite of their problems.

Information given by high school principals can help to predict behavior of college students. Much of the information given in such rating blanks is not predictive of behavior, but a study of the 1941 Grinnell College entrance forms indicated that five items differentiated significantly between a group of 60 students who had been disciplined by the personnel board and 60 students who were doing satisfactory college work and who were judged by a personnel officer, an administrative officer, and fellow students to be well adjusted (275). The differential items related to scholarship, industry, accuracy, initiative, and emotional balance. The ratings of the two groups were compared by means of critical ratios, which ranged from 3.11 to 6.84—statistical results which indicate that the differences were not due to chance.

Care should be taken that the student who is identified as a potential troublemaker by the test should not be tagged with an unsavory label or humiliated in any way. Help would be rendered difficult in any case following such an experience.

Counseling and other special attention could be given unobtrusively. Teachers could be requested to give special attention and understanding to these students in an effort to help them solve their problems.

Help in identifying potential troublemakers can also be given by the classroom teachers. Training in identification of warning symptoms should be given the teacher. Students thus identified should be referred for testing and counseling.

The following kinds of behavior, if persistent, indicate a need for counseling or psychotherapy: (1) extreme negativism; (2) unhappiness and moodiness; (3) daydreaming and preoccupation; (4) threats of violence; (5) overachievement and underachievement; (6) facial tics and nervous mannerisms; (7) irregular attendance; (8) extremes in dress or manner.

Helping the Weak Teacher. Punctuality, adequate preparation, reasonable assignments, fair testing, prompt scoring of papers, and prompt dismissal of classes are among the obvious suggestions which might be made to the teacher who is weak in discipline.

When a weakness seems apparent, the administrator might investigate to see if the teacher overreacts to trifling annoyances. The teacher might need help in recognizing when a real offense occurs.

Help from a trained counselor for the teacher himself could solve some of the discipline problems. If teachers could solve their personal problems they would be better able to handle classroom problems. The idea of counseling faculty members amuses some educators. However, the

fact remains that many schoolteachers have serious personal problems, and there is no reason to suspect that they are impervious to the use of counseling and the laws of learning. The teacher is subject to what amounts to abnormal pressures. The community often expects absolute perfection of the teacher. Personal problems are almost inevitable under the circumstances.

The beginning teacher is faced with problems of adjustment involving assuming a new role. Learning a new role requires effort. The beginning teacher may have been a student leader in the college where he just finished. He had a secure place in his own group. He played a starring role during commencement. As a new member of a teaching staff, he finds himself in an inferior position. He must learn new things about himself as well as about the job. Problems of status, security, and self-esteem are involved.

The administrator is harried by organizational minutiae. Every hour brings a separate matter of apparent urgency. The administrator is inclined to respond to the "go signal" and postpone the consideration of the subtle aspects of the total program. He will be wise to remember that the new teacher looks to him for support and leadership. If the teacher seldom sees the boss, he feels rejected and unsuccessful. Attention to the personal needs of the faculty members will affect the tone of the whole school.

Counseling the teacher probably should not be attempted by the administrator, because of the complicated role in which the administrator would be involved, but he can show acceptance and recognition.

Axline (14:169) discusses how the administrator might use the non-directive response with an antagonistic teacher:

He should not reject her for her disagreement or the expression of her negative feelings, but should accept her, give her an opportunity to express more of her feelings to him, and if he were able to do an adequate job of reflecting the emotionalized attitudes in back of her negativism, he might be able to help her achieve helpful insight and more satisfaction in her position.

Frank discussion of mutual problems could prevent misunderstandings. Forum discussions on discipline problems and group methods might help the beginning teacher to avoid mistakes in handling the group. Common infractions might be discussed and different methods of handling them presented. Current literature on the subject might be reviewed and discussed.

Methods of interviewing and counseling should be studied by the faculty members. Forum discussions on understanding the human personality should be helpful.

Films such as *The Feeling of Rejection*, produced and directed by Robert Anderson (13), or the Encyclopedia Britannica classroom films, *Democracy* and *Despotism* (66), are suggested for stimulating discussion. Excellent educational films are increasingly available. Among those which are related to student personnel work are *Angry Boy* (International Film Bureau, Inc.); *Boy in Court* (National Probation Association); *Emotional Health* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.); *Families First* (RKO); *Family Circles* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.); *Learning to Understand Children* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.); *Maintaining Classroom Discipline* (McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc.); *Preface to a Life* (U.S. Department of Health); *Why Can't Jimmy Read?* (Syracuse University); *Your Family* (Coronet).

Newly developed methods of group dynamics are apparently highly successful in keeping the interest of the class and stimulating participation. These methods should be demonstrated to new teachers and their use encouraged.

Role-playing is discussed by Bradford and Lippitt (31) as a technique for teaching group methods to work supervisors. A similar experiment with teachers might be profitable. Other methods of teaching as they relate to discipline might be discussed.

Axline (14:169) suggests group therapy as a possibility for teachers. She says:

This would call for a leader who had acquired skill in reflecting the emotionalized attitudes that were expressed by members of the group, a leader who would not express any personal feelings while he was leader, so that one neutral person would be present at each meeting. . . . The success of such a meeting would depend on the integrity of the members of the group, for each member must feel confident that nothing he says will ever be used against him.

It is not enough for the administrator to set up rules of conduct and methods of enforcement. He must integrate the disciplinary program into the total scheme of the school. He must look for causes behind infractions: flaws in the school system and other causal influences operating upon the individual; physical handicaps or personality maladjustment in the offender.

The physician gives the patient a sedative to relieve the pain which is a symptom of acute appendicitis, but he removes the infected part. Similarly, the school administrator goes further than the symptoms of noise, discourtesy, or broken furniture in seeking to effect a permanent solution to the discipline problems.

The foregoing proposal will not be comforting to the administrator who is seeking a formula to solve all his problems. It is obviously the more difficult course of action. A list of penalties is easily compiled, *but an un-*

charted, comprehensive, constructive program requires imagination and sustained effort. The ultimate results will be more satisfying than immediate ones and many of the benefits will be too subtle for measurement.

Summary

The background for disciplinary problems may be found in home conflict, parental rejection, personal insecurity, early school experience, failure of the school to meet the needs of the students, conflicting values of our culture, conflicts of the peer group with school and home standards, and physical handicaps. Authoritarian methods of discipline may be effective in temporary crises or they may produce outward conformity, but they contribute little to rehabilitation and educational goals. Emotion is a powerful force either for satisfactory or unsatisfactory behavior. Understanding how the individual feels is an important factor in treating a disciplinary problem. Psychotherapy is recommended for rehabilitating seriously disturbed offenders.

A positive approach includes attention to curriculum, teaching methods, administrative procedures, the social program, and opportunities for participation by the students in self-government and decision making.

Goals of the disciplinary program include not only order, protection for society, and rehabilitation, but educational experience in self-discipline and group living for all members of the student body.

Classroom achievement is sometimes retarded by reading disabilities, speech defects, poor study habits, or lack of language skills. Progress in therapy is sometimes delayed by these handicaps. Special help in reading, English, and study habits and speech correction are most valuable when coordinated with the student personnel program. Much of the work can be done in groups, and group-therapy methods can be applied when needed. Individuals who need it can be counseled concurrently.

Remedial Reading

The remedial reading class or clinic is sometimes maintained as a part of the counseling bureau services or in a liaison relationship with the counseling and testing bureaus as a part of the dean of students' program. In the high school, the service is more apt to be incorporated into the curriculum, but it may still make use of entrance tests and the services of child-study centers, visiting teachers, or school psychologists.

Students may reach the reading class or clinic through referrals from counselors, advisers, or classroom teachers or through self-referral. Test results may suggest the need for the service.

Scope of Problem. Reading disability limits the student in scholastic achievement, vocational choice, economic success, and social adjustment. Studies on the frequency of reading difficulties indicate that the problem is widespread. From 12 to 23 per cent of the groups of school children studied in various parts of the country appear to be handicapped in some area of reading. "Language disability handicaps one boy in ten," according to Gallagher (77), "and is a common cause of failure in school."

Poor home adjustment, visual impairment, low metabolic rate, inferior scholastic aptitude, malnutrition, anxieties, and other emotional disturbances are among the conditions which accompany the handicap. Poor instruction is a factor in some cases.

Diagnosis. Reading disability is the correct diagnosis only when the stu-

dent fails to read up to his level of ability to learn. The Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test, the Nelson Denny Reading Test, and others give the counselor or teacher an idea as to how well the student reads as compared with others of his class, but it does not tell him whether the student has developed his reading skills as well as he is able. A bright student may be reading up to the average of his group but far below his own capacity. His reading problem is greater than that of the student of low ability who is reading almost to capacity.

A discrepancy between a student's rank on the Ohio State University Psychological Examination and his rank on the Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test suggests the extent of the problem. The mental ability of some students with extreme reading disability can be measured only by means of the Stanford-Binet or a similar instrument which requires a minimum of reading.

Eye Defects. The diagnosis can be refined by means of additional techniques. Eye defects should be explored. Even a refractive error slips by the school doctor occasionally. Eye-muscle imbalance is virtually always accompanied by a reading handicap. Ability to fuse can be measured roughly by grandma's stereoscope. The student looks through the lens of the stereoscope at two separate identical pictures. If he sees double, if one picture is not perfectly superimposed over the other, or if the edges of the image are hazy, the student should be referred to a specialist in eye-muscle imbalances, if possible. Cards picturing a circle on one half and a star on the other half are available. The pupil looks through the stereoscope and tries to put the star in the ring. Omissions in seeing the two pictures indicate that vision is being suppressed. If a person cannot fuse or if he fuses slowly, he is likely to make poor progress in reading. If fusion of images is delayed, fragmentary, or impossible, vision is likely to be suppressed in one eye or the other.

Unequal imagery (aniseikonia) or distorted imagery (aniseimetria) interferes with reading progress. The effect is that of a double exposure, with one picture smaller than the other or one part of one picture out of proportion to the rest. These defects are sometimes accompanied by severe headaches, nausea, and nervousness. A combination of these symptoms with a low rate of reading speed suggests aniseikonia. The victim of aniseikonia virtually always complains that reading is hard work.

If one eye turns slightly inward or outward, reading will be more difficult. The victim may see a blurred image, or he may be able to achieve a perfect image with effort. In this case longer than normal time is spent in seeing.

Donald E. Morrison (142:62ff.) writes about the importance of visual skills: "It is necessary that we constantly be assured that both eyes are

being used equally." Regarding the adverse effect of eye-muscle imbalances on visual skills, he writes: "This then requires abnormal effort for fixation upon the object so it may be seen singly, requiring time and concentration. Effort is spent to perform the skill rather than upon interpretation of the result of the skill's execution." In other words, the effort of the reader is used in the mechanics of seeing rather than on comprehension.

The many variations of fusion defects and eye-muscle imbalances include completely monocular vision with alternating use of either eye. Reading ability may or may not be impaired by such a defect.

The identification of fusion defects and eye imbalances is important for two reasons: first, in order that the student can be treated, if possible, and second, in order that his handicap can be understood by counselor, teachers, and parents. The handicapped student should be referred to a specialist, who may want to send the patient to a clinic in eye-muscle imbalances for a detailed diagnosis. Adequately equipped clinics for the diagnosis and correction of these defects are located at Washington University Medical School in St. Louis, Missouri; Northwestern University Medical School in Chicago, Illinois; and at several Eastern universities. Simple, inexpensive equipment has only recently become available. If referral is financially impossible, it is still important for the counselor or the teacher to know whether or not a student has an eye-muscle imbalance or fusion defect in order that she will not expect the impossible. Progress in reading speed is impossible for students with some types of eye defects, and insistence upon improvement could produce neuroses or other maladjustments.

The author has taken what may seem an undue amount of space for the discussion of eye defects. The extensive discussion of the eye can be justified because it is the avenue through which a large percentage of all learning takes place. Eye-muscle imbalances and fusion weaknesses are more frequently associated with reading disability than any other eye defects.

Other Physical Factors. Other physical factors should also receive attention before or during the time the students are attending remedial reading classes. Students suspected of malnutrition, low metabolic rate, hearing defects, etc., should be referred to a physician. Children treated for reading defects at one metropolitan remedial center receive a complete physical examination and treatment for physical defects.

Personality Problems. Problems of personal adjustment are common among disabled readers. Students having reading disabilities of long standing have built up a dislike for reading and many of them have developed feelings of inadequacy. Lowered morale is often a factor. Students with poor morale do not have a happy outlook for the future and

usually have varying amounts of depression. Lack of hope interferes with a courageous attack on personal problems. Depression interferes with memory. Anxiety limits achievement. Family problems produce rebellious, distractible, or withdrawn students.

Hints of family problems may be found in a retarded reader's written description of a family scene. In the boy's words, the room had a "grim look"; the girl in the background was making "unhepful suggestions to her brother who was tired but studing hard" (77).

A reading deficiency can produce the same results as any other kind of failure, especially if the child can find no solution to his problem. Frustration and even neurosis can be the outcome. Jensen (100:535ff.) found that about 40 per cent of the retarded readers he studied were neurotic and that the neurotics also had problems of home adjustment.

The maladjustment may be the result of reading disability or it may be the cause. The rejected child may resist learning. The overanxious student may not be able to give his full attention to the task. On the other hand, lack of success in the schoolroom contributes to anxiety. If the child has a handicap such as eye-muscle imbalance, he is confronted with forbidding obstacles. He is expected to compete with pupils with normal eye coordination. Each problem aggravates the other.

Boney (29:56ff.) and Witty and Kopel (268:21ff.) treat the problem of reading deficiency as it relates to lack of motivation and lack of success and reward. Schlesser and Younge (201:85ff.) found it less important to coach on techniques of study than to use motivational methods. Meek's study (135:300) implies that if a student feels successful interest persists. If not, interest dies. Motivation can be stimulated by helping the student to find out interesting things from reading and from helping him to feel success.

Negative motivation was observed to operate in the case of a boy whose reading skills tested four years below his age-grade level. His mother had a habit of saying, "Fred is such a disappointment to me and has been since he started to school." She repeated urgently that he "must do better." His teacher also urged him to do better, reminding him that he had a "good mind," that his mother was sacrificing to give him advantages. The situation was complicated by the fact that his mother was active in club work and other activities. Her attention to her children was limited to physical care and discipline if necessary.

While Fred was a likable, conformative, polite little boy and gave little trouble to anybody, he seemed to enjoy having his mother show her concern over his failure to read. It was as if he felt, "As long as I don't learn to read, she will worry about me."

Jensen (100:535ff.) classified retarded readers as retiring, belligerent,

or indifferent. He found those in the belligerent state more amenable to remediation. Sometimes, recovery of a withdrawn pupil begins with a period of rebellion through which he must pass before he can recover positive motivation.

The studies of Bills (24:140ff.) indicate that play therapy and other nondirective methods help to improve reading ability when the deficiency is accompanied by emotional problems, but not when the retarded reader has made a satisfactory personal adjustment. However, since anxiety and frustration are so often present in cases of reading deficiency, nondirective counseling would appear to be a suitable accompaniment to classwork.

Remedial Reading Class. Interesting reading material is a "must." A suggested text for college or high school classes is *Personal Problems of Everyday Life* by Dorothy Baruch (19). Students in reading classes in the University of Minnesota voted to levy an assessment on themselves for the purchase of magazines for classroom use. Popular selections were *Magazine Digest, Reader's Digest,* and *Reader's Scope.* Humor, politics, psychology, and religion are among the subjects which provoked the interest of the students. Unusual gains in speed were noted after the reading of short humorous selections. If these materials are too difficult for the students, selection could be made from the many delightful storybooks and picture books usually found in children's libraries.

The following classroom procedures are suggested for high school and college classes in remedial reading. Materials for testing are kept by the teacher until immediately before the timed reading which is a part of every class period. A brief warm-up period on other materials may be agreeable to students. As each student finishes the prescribed amount of reading, he raises his hand and the teacher writes the stop-watch time on the blackboard. Comprehension is measured by an objective test over the material read. Each student graphs his percentage of comprehension and the number of words per minute. Overemphasis on speed will inhibit comprehension.

Discussion following reading permits the students to express attitudes and feelings stimulated by the reading and enhances the meaning of the content. Here, as in the counseling situation, the teacher does not give the answers, but responds to the attitudes being expressed. Students should be encouraged to say what they think and what they feel about the reading content rather than to recite what the book said.

The teacher accepts the attitudes expressed without praise or blame and responds to the emotional content rather than the intellectual content of the students' remarks. The students learn to accept each other as time goes on.

The students need to be oriented to a new type of classroom experience

in which they assume responsibility for discussion. The teacher begins the first discussion by defining the limits of her responsibility. She does not ask questions but reflects the feelings expressed by the students. If the discussion bogs down she can get it going again by stating the situation and clarifying it. She may want to list the points of agreement and disagreement. The students' responsibility is outlined by the teacher. They are told they are free to express themselves frankly. The teacher does not state which of the students' responses are right or wrong. She is responsible for drawing every student into participation and preventing one or a few from dominating the group.

Gains. The procedures recommended here have been used in teaching groups of retarded readers in colleges in Iowa, Minnesota, and Kansas. An average increase in reading speed of more than fifty words a minute plus increased comprehension was recorded for seven student groups who attended four reading sessions per week for a period of about three months. Appreciable gains were noted for a student group meeting four times weekly for a period of six weeks. The greatest gains are usually made in the first six weeks. Extending the period to twelve weeks tends to fixate gains.

Reading experts report gains made in reading speed and comprehension following the use of diagnostic and clinical machines. However, other methods show equivalent gains from classroom technique without the machines. Even free library reading produces some gains in speed and comprehension.

The above-described methods are recommended because they are simple and inexpensive and have proved successful in repeated experimentation. Considerably less favorable results were obtained from vocabulary drill or the use of grammar exercises.

Sound psychological principles underlie the recommended procedures. Feelings of satisfaction are attached to the reading activity when the student records his own gains, hears himself discussing interesting content and feels himself accepted by the group and the teacher.

Aside from timed reading and objective tests of comprehension, retesting with the Cooperative Reading Test is recommended. Retesting with the Minnesota Personality Scale showed significant gains in social adjustment of retarded readers who received remedial help over a six-week period, according to the unpublished thesis of William E. West (255), graduate student of Kansas State College.

Because individual attention is so important in the treatment of the reading handicap, the class should be limited to not more than 20 members.

Individual Tutoring. Individual tutoring has been useful in the rehabili-

tation of some severely retarded readers. In one community, this was undertaken under the supervision of the child-study department. Tutors were examined and approved by the department and recommended to parents of elementary and junior high school pupils who needed help. The tutors were paid by the parents who were financially able. Funds were secured from private donors to pay for the lessons of retarded readers from lower income families. Pupils to receive help were required to rank in the middle 50 per cent or higher in tested mentality; I.Q.'s ranged as high as 140.

Arrangements were made with the classroom teachers to excuse from class those pupils who were to receive individual instruction. Counseling was combined with the lessons.

The methods were left to the individual tutors. Each pupil was given standardized reading tests before and after 50 lessons to evaluate progress in reading and social adjustment. Lessons of one hour each were scheduled two or three times weekly.

The following procedures were used with considerable success. Recreational reading materials, picture books, and simple storybooks were used whenever possible, because the pupils had worked up resistance to the formal classroom reader. If it became necessary to use reading texts, they were chosen from among those which the student had not used before. Materials were chosen by the following criteria:

1. Interesting content
2. Simple vocabulary
3. Particular interests of the individual
4. Interesting pictures
5. Few words on a page

The need for interesting materials was urgent, because most of these pupils apparently had no idea that they were expected to get meaning from the printed page. A decided effort was made to secure books and stories relating to specific interests of individuals. One boy could hardly bring himself to make the necessary effort to read unless he could read about ships or boats. Another was most motivated by Ernie Pyle's column in the newspaper. One pupil was especially interested in animals, and another liked best stories which had to do with beautiful paintings, music, or crafts.

Pictures helped to fixate a great many of the unfamiliar words and contributed to interest in the stories. Feelings of success were more frequent when each page was short. A long page of reading was a little forbidding.

Songs, jokes, cartoons, instructions for building model airplanes, and all sorts of other incidental materials were also used.

The word-recognition method was adapted to the needs of the students. Unfamiliar words were introduced along with a suitable picture, on flash cards, or by storytelling or telling a suitable incident involving the words. Troublesome words such as "saw," "their," "and" were put into sentences relating to the child's life and written on the blackboard. "Judy *saw* her teacher coming," "Donald and David brought *their* football to school." More difficulty was experienced with such words than with longer, more meaningful words.

A question was asked preceding the reading of each unit or paragraph. Discussion followed the reading of each unit. Comprehension was tested by sentences to be completed in writing and by verbal discussion. Matching exercises and other forms of drill were used. Timed readings were used with the more proficient readers, each keeping his own chart.

Some of the pupils were handicapped by lack of interesting experience with which to connect the reading. Trips were arranged to museums, lakes, the zoo, etc. The pupil then dictated an account of his trip into the dictaphone and listened to his own voice telling the story. The teacher transcribed it on the typewriter and the pupil read it aloud. After he could read it well, he took it home and read it to his parents. This was perhaps the most productive of all techniques.

If the pupil expressed emotion, the tutor defined feeling. Sometimes he was reluctant to begin the lesson. The tutor might say, "You hate to start today." The child might sigh and squirm when he had to attack a hard passage. The tutor responded, "This is hard work." Sometimes the pupils expressed resentment toward the tutor. He reflected, "You don't like me, today," "You wish you didn't have to come for the lesson." Sometimes the pupils wanted more of the tutor's attention than he was able to give. He defined, "You would like me to stay longer." If they expressed resentment toward teacher or parent, he reflected those feelings, too.

Sometimes parents wanted to do the tutoring. This was not usually successful. The parents became impatient or distracted by home duties. In one case, the child was unable to continue tutoring because of transportation difficulties. The tutor gave a demonstration lesson for the parents, provided materials, and outlined the procedures. The tutor interpreted the child's test results, which were favorable to improvement, and explained that the attitude of the parents would have a good deal to do with the success of the experiment. With regard to attitude, he suggested the following, "We believe you can do it" not "We know you have the ability. Why don't you do it?" In this case, the parents were able to adopt a permissive, accepting attitude and the boy made progress in reading.

Testing. For testing reading ability in the junior and senior high school,

Strang [1] suggests the *Iowa Silent Reading Test* (World Book Company), the *Traxler Reading Test* (Public School Publishing Company), and the *Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test* (Cooperative Test Service); and for upper high school and college, form C2 of the Cooperative Reading Comprehension tests. For diagnosis, she recommends the *Van Wagenen-Dvorak Diagnostic Examination of Silent Reading Abilities* (Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minnesota, grades 4 to 5, 6 to 9, and 10 to 12).

Speech Clinic

The relationship of the speech clinic at the University of Minnesota to other student personnel services is described by Bryngelson.[2] The speech clinic became a part of the dean of students' program in 1941. Referrals are made and case data provided by the counseling bureau. The cooperation of the health service is also reported. The staff of the speech clinic includes counselors, and referrals are made to the reading clinic, health service, counseling bureau, and activities bureau.

The clinic treats pathologic types of speech disorders, stutterers, the deaf, deafened, and hard of hearing, linguistically disoriented aphasics, personality deviates with speech disorders, people with an exaggerated fear of speaking situations, and those who have unconventional pitch in voice quality.

Bryngelson discusses the relationship between emotional adjustment and speech difficulties, both from the point of view of underlying emotional problems as the cause of the difficulty and of the anxiety and insecurity which are produced by the difficulty. He comments: "In speech counseling one is forced to view the organism as a whole and look upon and listen to speech as a symbolic formulation of what is underneath."

With regard to group therapy for treating speech difficulties, Bryngelson [3] has this to say: "Resistance is verbalized here, and the group assumes responsibility and makes suggestions. Insight into problems seems to appear more spontaneously. Although these persons consult a speech expert because they themselves have considered their problem as one related to communication through speech, there is no reason to believe that a similar situation does not obtain in other counseling units." He sees promise in group therapy and client-centered therapy as a means of treating speech defects.

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[1] Strang, Ruth, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, pp. 34*ff.*

[2] Bryngelson, Bryng, "The Speech Clinic in Counseling," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 213*ff.*

[3] *Ibid.*

Remedial English

The extent of English deficiencies is discussed in Chapter 10 with reference to the use of standardized tests.

The data useful in treating these problems can be provided by the counseling bureau, along with the norms of the college. If the service is available to students on a voluntary basis, referrals could be made by counselors and classroom teachers to the remedial teacher.

A liaison between the English department and the counseling bureau might be a useful arrangement for helping these retarded students. Acquaintance with counseling techniques and group processes would help the remedial teacher's approach to problem students.

Two teachers of "zero English" at one college voluntarily interviewed each of their students several times during the semester. The fact that a higher percentage of their students passed the required proficiency test than in any other classes suggests that more research should be done on this technique as an accompaniment to remedial English.

How-to-study Clinic

The study clinic may be handled as a part of the curriculum, with a place in the daily schedule of classes or as a series of required meetings at the beginning of each year. Or a discussion group might agree on a suitable time to meet. The subjects for discussion could be suggested by the members, letting the group decide in which order to discuss them. Profitable topics might be outlining, taking notes, study schedules, a regular time for study, reviewing, memorizing, taking tests, use of index, dictionary, encyclopedia, *Readers' Guide,* and other study helps.[4]

Practical help of this kind is usually much appreciated by students and faculty. This is one of the student personnel services which can be readily "sold" to the faculty, and if it is effective interest is stimulated in other aspects of the program.

Summary

Reading deficiencies may be aggravated by physical conditions and personality problems. Failure to achieve in reading can produce the same kinds of personal adjustment as any failure. Motivation is an important factor in improving reading skills.

Interesting materials, timed readings, discussion following readings, the charting of individual progress, and counseling have been effective in improving reading skills. Individual tutoring of severely retarded readers may be helpful. Emotional problems may complicate speech disorders.

[4] See also Chap. 11.

Personal interviews with students deficient in English skills appear to facilitate their improvement.

Communication between remedial services and other student personnel services contributes to the effectiveness of the program.

CHAPTER 10 *Measurement*

Testing is a part of every comprehensive student personnel program. A full treatment of the subject would require several hundred pages or perhaps several thousand. There are many adequate references which give test descriptions and interpretations. Whole books have been written about the application of a single test.

This chapter will describe how tests can be employed

1. To help the counselor understand his client and help the client to understand himself

2. To give the counselor, faculty adviser, and others leads which are useful in counseling

3. To help administrators, faculty, and personnel staff to understand the nature of their student population

4. To gather information which is useful in helping students to find a suitable place in the curriculum, and vocations

5. To evaluate the academic progress and personal development of students and the degree to which the school is satisfying the needs of the students

The sad part about the use of tests and measures in the school is that full use is seldom made of these valuable instruments. While testing is often the first step toward a student personnel program, the application of this valuable information may be restricted to comparing the general level of achievement in a school with that of other schools or to measuring progress in given academic areas.

Super (224:13) lists four major types of error frequently made by users of tests:

1. Neglect of other methods of diagnosis

2. Overemphasis on diagnosis with the resulting tendency to neglect counseling

3. Failure to take into account the specific validity of tests used

4. Neglect of other methods of guidance which should normally accompany diagnosis and counseling

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Warters (252:36ff.) discusses the function of the measurement movement in a democracy where provision is made for individual needs, not in order that pupils may serve as more useful means to the ends of the state but in order to secure the optimum development of the individual. She says that these valuable instruments are not always used for the most important purposes by personnel workers and educators.

Understanding the Individual

While the sensitive counselor is often able to gather sufficient information in interview to enable him to understand his client, he can be somewhat more sure of himself if he has objective data such as are provided by tests. He can be deceived by outward appearance. Occasionally a deep-seated anxiety is concealed beneath surface poise.

The experience of a counselor with a girl who was referred for vocational guidance illustrates this point. She was achieving according to her tested abilities, was attractive in appearance, and gave the impression of being in touch with reality. She was calm and composed. She engaged in interesting activities aside from her job and classes. She seemed neither overexcitable nor overcontrolled. Personality measurements suggested the possibilities of anxiety, depression, or schizophrenic tendencies. While clues to these problems would undoubtedly have appeared during a series of contacts, there were only very slight indications of them during the first interview. The test results prepared the counselor to detect and respond to the hints given by the client. Without personality test results, the case might have been treated as strictly a problem of vocational choice. Sufficient information could have been given in one interview to help her make a vocational choice and no subsequent appointment might have been made.

In some cases the counselor suspects a serious problem, but he needs to have his suspicions confirmed. The test helps him to know the extent of the trouble as well as the nature of it.

A client's answers to questions asked on a personality test offered her counselor clues to her motivations and emotional problems. She was referred for counseling after having been apprehended in a violation of the moral code. She was a small, chubby girl with crooked teeth and unruly hair, but very neat in her dress. Her personal history showed that she had been exceedingly conformative, well behaved in the classroom, regular in her attendance at church and Sunday school, quiet and courteous in her contacts with her elders. She had been so little trouble to her mother that she had not been sent to nursery school. She had seldom played with children of her own age. Her activities had consisted principally of music

lessons, playing the piano for Sunday school, and quiet dinner parties with her parents and their friends.

To the following questions (21) she answered, "Yes":

Do you sometimes feel that your parents are disappointed in you?
Did you ever have a strong desire to run away from home?
Do you frequently feel very tired toward the end of the day?
Do you often have much difficulty in thinking of an appropriate remark to make in a group conversation?
Are you troubled with shyness?
Do you frequently envy the happiness other people seem to enjoy?
Has either of your parents certain personal habits which irritate you?
Are you troubled with feelings of inferiority?
Do you often feel self-conscious because of your personal appearance?
Do you occasionally have conflicting moods of love and hate for members of your family?
Do you feel there has been a lack of real affection and love in your home?
Have you often felt that either of your parents did not understand you?
Have you felt that your friends have had a happier home life than you?

To these questions she answered, "No":

Do you take responsibility for introducing people at a party?
Have your relationships with your father usually been pleasant?
Are you sometimes the leader at a social affair?
Do you make friends readily?
Are you often the center of favorable attention at a party?
Was your father what you would consider your ideal of manhood?

With these answers, the portrait of the "good little girl" fell apart, and the child was revealed as lonely, unhappy, constantly conforming to adult standards, resentful toward parents, ill at ease in social situations. The counselor was prepared for her mounting expressions of resentment against her parents and their cool, unyielding demands. He was able to answer with genuine understanding when she expressed her determination to do whatever she felt was necessary to "belong."

Clues useful in understanding the client could be found in answers to the following statements, marked according to a five-point scale from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree" (53).

Life is just a series of disappointments.
No one cares much what happens to you.
The future looks very black.
Life is just one worry after another.
Education only makes a person discontented.
There is really no point in living.

When a client arrives at his appointment with his counselor, a good deal of information is often available about him in the form of entrance tests, grades, school activities, etc. The counselor may want to review the facts before he sees the client.

The point of view that advance information on the client may prejudice the counselor seems somewhat farfetched. If the counselor believes in the intrinsic worth of every individual and his ability and right to make his own choices, he will be able to maintain an attitude of acceptance regardless of how he learns facts about his client.

Rapaport (179:3ff.) states some advantages of the use of test data.

Clinical psychiatry has two basic and time honored methods: that of the case history and that of clinical observation. Both of these methods are powerful tools in the hands of the experienced psychiatrist; nevertheless, each has shortcomings. Historical information, whether obtained from the patient or other informants, will have omissions and distortions. It is up to the astuteness of the psychiatrist to follow up omissions and to rectify distortions. Thus in gathering the material on which the diagnosis is to be based, the historical case material is affected by subjective factors on the part of both the informant and psychiatrist. The same is true for observational data included in the psychiatric examination and report of the psychiatrist. Such reports can do no more than pick out a few highlights of the patient's behavior which, . . . even though correct qualitatively and useful practically, are nevertheless subjectively selected by the psychiatrist.

Psychological testing is an effort to obtain whole and systematic samples of certain types of verbal, perceptual, and motor behavior, in the frame of a standardized situation. The advantage of data collected in psychological tests is that little, and in many tests no, subjective selection is involved in securing the data.

Additional advantages are listed by Rapaport: "In psychological tests, more or less standard scoring systems provide for an organization of the data which is relatively free from such subjective factors . . . the psychologist's organized test material is in terms of scores and patterns which allow for inter-individual comparison with numerical scores and score patterns of other cases."

He describes conditions where test data are particularly valuable:

1. If the case history is missing or insufficient
2. When time is limited
3. When the scarcity of psychiatric service makes it necessary that the psychiatrist devote himself to therapeutic work, leaving little time for intensive diagnostic study

Sometimes tests are given during a counseling interview. Client responses help the counselor to understand the client and the client to gain

insights into his own adjustment. Projective techniques often provide valuable hints to the counselor.

A client who could not bring herself to talk about painful experiences agreed to take the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) (152) from her counselor. While telling a story about one of the pictures, she digressed into personal experience and found that she was able to relieve her mind and to gain new insights into behavior resulting from her experiences.[1] When communication seems blocked, it is sometimes possible for clients to express their feelings about themselves through finger paintings or similar mediums. The client may progress from this form of self-description to fuller verbal release.

Frequent references have been made to the effect of emotion on behavior. Emotion can facilitate or inhibit achievement, can render the individual incapable of using knowledge. Long ignored, this factor in learning is receiving increasing attention. The trend in this direction is illustrated by the contrast between early and recent administrative reports at the University of Michigan. Reports of the president to the Board of Regents in the 1800's and early 1900's put the blame for failing students either on the high school or poor selection of students, or on laziness, bad study habits, distractions, lack of ability, and other undesirable student characteristics (232). The president's report for 1946–1947 (232) contains this statement: "In the judgment of the Administrative Board, failures are the result, not of the lack of mental ability, but of emotional and personal maladjustments. We are trying to help these individual cases with the aid of the Bureau of Psychological Services and the Health Service." Among all the various instruments which help the educator to understand the individual, measures of adjustment, attitudes, and personality are perhaps the most indispensable.

Understanding Attitudes and Personality. Measurement of attitudes can contribute to the counselor's understanding of the individual. However, these intangibles are difficult to measure. As Torrance (240) points out, "Since fear of loss of security or self-esteem, loss of prestige, or the arousing of guilt feelings suppresses the expression of attitudes in the form of opinions or actions in so many important areas of life, we cannot be content to study *only* those which find expression in opinions or actions." He says the fact that a person may be unaware of his real attitudes makes it even more important to study suppressed attitudes.

Reasons for the suppression of attitudes are given by Saenger and Proshansky (199:23ff.):

[1] Paul Torrance says, "When interpreting TAT stories, we may usually proceed on the assumption that the respondent's attitudes are reflected in them much more freely, and with much less disguise or displacement, than they are manifested in daily living" (240).

1. The ambivalences in our culture propagate conflicting attitudes. (Prejudice toward minority groups along with equalitarian beliefs, and aggressive competition along with cooperation and love for neighbors.)

2. The individual often finds himself in conflict between his own attitudes and those found in his environment.

3. A person may have an inner conflict about his attitudes in so far as they are determined by central needs evolving from his life history.

Saenger and Proshansky make three claims for projective techniques:

1. They reveal suppressed or repressed attitudes.
2. They lead to information on the genesis of attitudes.
3. They aid in the modification of attitudes.

Projective techniques, in the hands of trained clinicians, can be exceedingly effective in the measurement of attitudes and in the understanding of personality.

Strang (219:149) says: "Projective technics are a method of understanding the inner world of the individual. They give the counselor a sense of the dynamic interplay of forces within each person. They throw light on his potential capacity. They aim to get at the core rather than the circumferences of his personality structure." She believes that, by becoming familiar with projective theory and method, the counselor will become more discerning in his observation and interpretation of students' everyday behavior.

The aim of projective techniques, according to Rapaport (180:516), is "to elicit, to render observable, to record and communicate the psychological structure of the subject, as inherent to him at any given moment, and without study of historical antecedents."

Of all technical procedures used in the study of freshmen in the Harvard Psychological Clinic, projection tests are reported to have produced the most significant data, most often revealed emotionally logical connection between past events and present behavior (153:761).

In the opinion of Super (224:527), "Perhaps the major trend in the development of instruments for the measurement of personality during the past twenty years has been away from the inventory technique and toward various projective devices." However, he also points out that there is a trend toward refinement of the inventory type of measurement. The search goes on for "a more subtle and penetrating type of test which would probe underneath the sophistications and rationalizations of the subject in order to get at the structure and content of his personality."

Projective methods offer the client considerably more freedom of expression than do inventories and questionnaires. Furthermore, items which might be offensive to some subjects may be reduced or eliminated.

Whether the subject is requested to tell a story about a picture, tell what he sees in an ink blot, or respond to relatively meaningless sounds, he can project his own unconscious feelings and attitudes into his responses without fear of losing his security. The story provoked by the TAT picture may be his own story or may reflect his conflicts or biases and yet it preserves his anonymity by the device of the third person. Projective techniques help the counselor to understand the way in which the individual perceives the world around him.

While this discussion is not intended to prepare one to administer or interpret any of the projective techniques, the authors feel that this brief mention will give an inkling of some of the resources available to the student personnel worker.

A projective technique, according to Campbell's formula (37:15ff.), provides "A plausible task, which your respondents will all strive to do well; which is sufficiently difficult or ambiguous to allow for individual differences in response, and which can be loaded with content relative to the attitude you seek to measure."

The TAT (152) consists of a series of 20 pictures which are shown to the subject one at a time, with the request to tell the story which each suggests to him. Four editions have been prepared since the first set of pictures was published in 1935. Numerous other tests have been patterned after the original.

While Super (224:526ff.) speaks of the embryonic status of the TAT, he sees in it promise "as a device for measuring, more subtly than any personality inventory, the needs which drive people and the forces which they feel pressing upon them."

The Rorschach ink-blot method tells something about the person's spontaneity, imagination, originality; about whether he tends to be outgoing or self-centered; about his potential intelligence; about whether he has neurotic tendencies or a well-balanced personality; about whether he approaches an unfamiliar situation in an orderly, a compulsive, or a confused way, according to Strang (219:156ff.). She lists these uses: to identify persons in need of psychiatric treatment; to differentiate between temporary environmental difficulties and more permanent mental disorders; to show personality aspects significant for vocational success (drive, attitude, performance, persistence, authority, responsibility, and initiative); to predict (with other evidence) academic success and adjustment in college; to show a person's unrealized potentialities, as for example, his potential intelligence; to guide treatment of client (furnish diagnostic clues); to indicate whether an individual is making progress.

The test is administered by asking the client to tell what each ink blot means to him. It has been used for children, adolescents, and normal

adults as well as for the mentally ill. Interpretation should be made in terms of the age group to which the client belongs.

The predictive value of the Rorschach was studied at Sarah Lawrence College. Scores made on the test which was given early in the school year were checked against subsequent behavior. A group of problem students, selected from academic failures, students referred to the psychiatrist, and those whose teachers reported problem behavior, were shown by the Rorschach scores to have an average of 7.9 personality deviations per person—that is, indications of emotional maladjustment. Another group of 15 students, selected as unusually well adjusted by teachers, had an average of only 2.6 deviations. A self-inventory administered to this same group completely missed some of the most seriously maladjusted students (147:229ff.; 148:89ff.).

Super (224:531) includes mention of incomplete sentence tests, which give the client relative freedom of expression. Such beginnings as "I wish . . . ," "My boss . . . ," "The work I do . . . ," "My mother. . . ." This device might be considered a variation of the word-association test. Measures of this sort could be developed and applied in a given school situation providing responses were classified and standardized on the local population.

Torrance (240) describes the use of six projective methods and makes suggestions for their modification toward simplicity of scoring and interpretation and for adaption to mass testing. The six include the TAT devised by H. A. Murry and his associates; the Rosenzweig Picture-frustration Study; the sentence-completion test, originally used by Payne, Tendler, Rohde, and Hildreth, and others in personality analysis and later adapted for attitude study; the word-association test; the error-choice method, which forces the subject into a choice of errors indicating his bias or attitude; the Tautophone method, which requires the subject to respond to patterns of sounds. He also mentions the Rorschach Psychodiagnostik, Szondi Triebdiagnostic, Machaver's Human Drawings, Buck's House-Tree-Person Test, the Sociometric Picture Test, finger painting, the Blacky Test, and the Horn-Hellersberg Test of Reality in Our Culture as useful but complicated to score and interpret.

Among the limitations to their use, according to Torrance, are the difficulty of explaining the basic theories of projection to teachers and the lack of understanding of personality theories which projective methods assume. However, he believes that they play an important role in research and in the validation of other methods of attitude assessment and he sees promise for their development. Adaptation for mass testing, if possible, would permit their use, not only in understanding the individual but in understanding the nature of the student population.

The Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory is one of the more recent diagnostic instruments for the study of the individual personality. There are two forms of the test, a set of cards which the subject sorts into three piles (true, false, cannot say), and a booklet with IBM answer sheets. Nine scales for scoring include hypochondriasis, depression, hysteria, psychopathic deviation, masculinity-femininity, paranoia, psychasthenia, schizophrenia, and hypomania. Four other scores—question, lie, validity, and a "suppressor variable"—help the interpreter to judge whether or not the other scores are affected by evasiveness, dishonesty, or unrealistic self-evaluation.

Judged according to Ellis's criteria for validity (64:385ff.) the test appears to have more validity for screening and classifying personality problems than any of the generally available personality inventories. It has been used, not only for adults, but for high school and junior high school pupils and for delinquent adolescents.

The test helps the counselor to gain insight into the emotional life of his client, to identify individuals in need of counseling, and to understand the nature and extent of the client's maladjustment. Persons who make extremely high scores on any of the scales may be assumed to be in need of treatment. More research is needed to discover how it can best be used for studying and understanding the adolescent personality.

As this discussion implies, the use of some of these measures would require the services of highly trained clinicians not usually available to the high school. The authors suggest that if it is impossible for a high school to secure such services, several high schools might pool their resources and hire a technical adviser who would visit each school regularly. The state department of education might be encouraged to provide such advisers. Another suggestion is the mobile-unit type of service, which might carry a crew including a psychologist, psychiatrist, social worker, and psychometrist.

The interpretation of personality tests may give the inexperienced counselor trouble. A high school handbook (274) contains this discussion of personality tests.

Personality test results are significant in conjunction with rankings from achievement tests, reading tests and interest tests. Adjustment factors are involved in problems of low achievement, reading handicap and vocational choice. Emotional problems may produce a block which interferes with achievement and reading progress. A decision on a vocation must sometimes be delayed until an emotional problem is treated. Retiringness or aggressiveness, composure or excitability, and other characteristics should be considered when making a vocational choice.

The Minnesota Personality Inventory (53) yields scores on areas of personal

adjustment designated as morale, social adjustment, family adjustment, emotional adjustment and economic conservatism. The first four are the most important and the most useful in an advising situation. A low score on the morale scale suggests the student may not be happy in his outlook for the future. It might be an evidence of depression. An average-to-high score may indicate optimism. Social adjustment relates to social sure-footedness. Low scores make the counselor suspect a lack of self-confidence in social situations. High scores suggest ease and poise in social situations. Poor family adjustment may be indicated by low percentile rank on the family-adjustment key. Poor home adjustment is usually accompanied by other problems of a psychological nature. Low scores on the emotionality key with other supporting evidence may indicate an unstable personality. An unsatisfactory score on any scale might not be conclusive evidence of maladjustment, but would indicate the need for investigation. Non-directive counseling is indicated in the case of extremely low scores if supported by other evidence symptomatic of maladjustment. An adviser who really understands the problem and lends a sympathetic ear is often able to aid the student to a better adjustment. Students who need more time than the faculty adviser can give them should be referred to a specialist if possible.

Mention was made in an earlier chapter of the use of the autobiography or autobiographical questionnaire or problem check list to gather information for the counseling interview. Questions taken from the Topeka High School Sophomore and New Student Questionnaire indicate some items which could be useful to the counselor:

Check in order of your interests (1, 2, 3) the activities you most enjoy: reading _____ swimming _____ cooking _____ musical _____ gun club _____, etc.

With whom do you generally get along easiest? older people _____ younger people _____ your own age _____.

What sorts of traits annoy you most? in adults _____ in teachers _____ in boys _____ in girls _____.

Space is provided for ranking subjects according to these classifications: like very much, like, dislike, indifferent.

Questions such as, What books have you liked very much? Describe experiences in which you have felt successful. Describe interesting trips you have taken. What work do you enjoy? are sometimes included.

The Kansas State College Individual Record Form includes these items:

Write all the things that have happened to you which you think might have influenced your vocational interests; if you were free of all restrictions (if you could do as you wish) what would you want to be doing ten or fifteen years from now?

Among items relating to personal problems are the following, to be checked or double-checked if the student wishes:

I usually feel inferior to my associates.
I have been unable to determine how much time I should study.
I have too few social contacts.
I am unable to determine what I should like to do.
I have trouble making myself study.

An autobiography gives the student an opportunity to express himself with more freedom than any other instrument. It includes items of information which help the counselor to understand the individual and which might not be included in check lists or questionnaires given to masses of students.

Lack of Information. The school or college counselor handles many cases in which emotional problems are slight or absent, and in which the principal problem is the individual's lack of information about himself. In such cases test data are invaluable.

A boy with high rankings on several intelligence tests and better than average school marks baffled his teachers and himself because he failed to take an interest in preprofessional curricula. A study of his score on the occupational level scale of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank suggested that he preferred the skilled trades to the professions. This information added to other interest scores and special-ability test scores helped the boy to arrive at a vocational choice of carpentry. Follow-up on this case indicated that he was well satisfied with his choice.

As this incident suggests, interest and aptitude tests are useful to the educator in his study of the individual personality. They are discussed somewhat more fully in the latter part of this chapter.

Understanding Scholastic Aptitude. Judging a student's mental ability is difficult without some objective data. A student of mediocre ability may have had sufficient success experiences to make him appear superior. Torrance (237) found that overevaluatees had held every conceivable office. The experience of leadership in socially acceptable activities may lead a student and his teachers to overestimate his ability. The ultimate result may be frustration in a situation where the individual cannot achieve according to the demands made on him by others and his own concept of his abilities.

Contributing to confusion with regard to ability is the customary premium on conformity. Often a student who conforms to the rules and gives his teacher no trouble is overrated.

Contrariwise, the bright troublemaker, the show-off, the challenger of the teacher may be underestimated. Performance, in some cases, may be inhibited by the student's lack of confidence, lack of meaningful experience, experiences of rejection, and the like.

Test results with other data help the counselor and teacher to know

how much to expect of a student. They also help to explain the student's behavior.

The *Thurstone Tests of Primary Mental Abilities* (American Council on Education, 1938, 1941; Science Research Associates, 1947) are available in a short form (SRA) and a long form (Chicago) for use at the high school and elementary school levels. The Chicago tests were standardized on 1,000 children in grades 8B and 10B in Chicago schools in 1941–1942. The development of local norms would increase their usefulness to a given school.

John Darley (52:99ff.) suggests for the high school the following scholastic aptitude tests which can be administered in groups: *Psychological Examination for High School Students* (American Council on Education, Washington, D.C.); *Ohio State University Psychological Test Form 21* (Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio); *Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability* (World Book Company, Yonkers, New York); *Pressey Senior Classification Test for High School Use* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois). Forms of these tests are available for college use.

Usually one test of mental ability is included in the battery given to new students, and others are stocked for checking on cases where results are suspected to be inaccurate. Mental strain, poor ventilation, malnutrition, illness, and reading disability are some of the factors which affect test scores adversely. Pencil-and-paper tests put a considerable premium on speed and reading ability. If a trained psychometrist is employed, it would be desirable to give the revised Stanford-Binet in some cases. It is primarily an oral test and affords a measure for students who are handicapped by a reading deficiency. The Ohio psychological is an untimed' power test, used with considerable success for slow readers.

Educators are possibly less familiar with the *Wechsler-Bellevue Scales of Mental Ability* (Williams & Wilkins, 1943, Psychological Corporation) which are administered individually. As a measure of intelligence, this instrument is more flexible than a pencil-and-paper test. The examiner has an opportunity to observe the reaction of the client as he is being tested and thus to modify procedures to create a favorable climate for client performance. The examiner may gain important insights into client behavior and adjustment while administering the test.

The results of the Wechsler-Bellevue scales can also be interpreted with relation to adjustment and the degree to which adjustment may inhibit the client's use of his mental ability. Thus the client's innate ability may be compared with his efficiency to use it. Inconsistencies in client responses may suggest extreme anxiety, depressive trends in a normal individual, or tendency toward hysteria or they may indicate psychopathology.

To use this test effectively, the examiner should have intensive training and experience.

While intelligence test results are certainly better than a guess, they are not infallible. Caution in the use of standardized tests with groups of different social backgrounds is suggested by the following incident described by Pressey (173:237). A child in a rural community was asked this question, "If you went to the store and bought six cents' worth of candy and gave the clerk ten cents, what change would you receive?" One child answered: "I never had ten cents and if I had I wouldn't spend it for candy, and anyway candy is what your mother makes."

Understanding the Pattern of Test Results. Strang (219:21) calls attention to the use of tests to discover students in need of counseling. She says the cumulative test record often shows a marked discrepancy between intelligence and achievement; it may call attention to changes in behavior, such as a sudden slump in academic achievement.

Wide discrepancy between test scores in achievement and intelligence is symptomatic of underlying problems. Underachievement and overachievement can be diagnosed, but the counselor should also look for more basic problems of home adjustment, emotional disturbance, insecurity, or reading deficiency through interviews, testing, and study of the pattern of test results. If on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, the L score (linguistic ability) percentile ranking is twice that of the Q score (ability to use quantitative concepts) or vice versa, there is uneven mental development and often a personality adjustment problem.

Aids to Interpretation. When reporting test results to faculty members, the student personnel worker should be perfectly sure that the faculty will understand how to use them. The following explanation (274) illustrates the kind of information which might be helpful.

Various methods of recording test data are employed. Graphing the percentile rankings of the student's test scores makes it possible to see all the test results at once. The adviser sees the strong and weak points of the student and his rank in various areas as compared with group norms. Roughly a fiftieth percentile ranking on any test indicates average performance, 75th percentile—superior performance, and 25th percentile—inferior performance. If a student's test score ranks him in the 10th percentile, 90 per cent of his group rank better than he. If he ranks in the 88th percentile, on the social studies test for example, his performance in social studies is better than that of 88 per cent of his group.

If local norms have been made, his score is compared with those of his classmates. If national norms are used, his score is compared with possibly 1,000 or more boys and girls in his age-grade group. Sometimes norms are made up for an especially selected group, as in the case of the item, "Masculinity-Femininity,"

measured by the Strong's Vocational Interest Blank. The student's scores are compared with those of other high school males.

The following study illustrates, to some extent, the use and interpretation of certain tests. J. O. is a seventeen-year-old senior in a Kansas high

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Inside record:

Blank High School Cumulative Record

O.   J.   M.   Jan. '31, Wichita, Kansas
Last Name   First Name   Middle Name   Date and Place of Birth

Home Address: Wichita, Kansas   Class: Senior   Age: 17

Family Names and Addresses	Deceased	Education	Occupation
Father S. O.	x	High School	Salesman
Mother M. O.		2 yrs. Col.	Store Manager
Guardian or Step Parent			

Home Conditions: Moderate income, mother works   Health: Average

Brothers: Older _____ Younger 1   Sisters: Older _____ Younger _____

TEST RECORD

Dates	Name of Tests	Norm	%ile	1	5	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
	MENTAL ABILITY														
	ACE Q		32						x						
	L		88										x		
	TOTAL		69								x				
	Ohio Psycho. Total														
	ACHIEVEMENT														
	Cooperative English Total														
	Spelling														
	English Usage														
	Vocabulary														
	Cooperative Algebra														
	Co-op. Gen. Science														
	Co-op. American History														
	Co-op. World History														
	Co-op. Reading Total														
	Vocabulary														
	Speed														
	Level of Comprehen.														
	Iowa Chemical Aptitude		96												x
	Co-op. Social Studies		82										x		
	VOCATIONAL INTERESTS														
	Occupational Int. Inv.														
	Personal-Social														
	Natural														
	Mechanical														
	Business														
	Artistic														
	Scientific														
	Verbal														
	Manipulative														
	Computational														
	Level														

Fig. 7. Cumulative record form showing test profile of a high school student.

school. His father is dead. He has a younger brother. He is making a B average in high school, but considers himself an inefficient student. He participates in debate, intramural basketball, political clubs, and the YMCA. He plans to attend college because it will enable him to obtain

Date	Name of Tests	Norm %ile	1	5	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
	Strong's Vocational Interest Test													
	I. Art-Medical													
	II. Engineer													
	IV. Agri-Technical													
	V. Social Service													
	VIII. Business Detail													
	IX. Sales													
	X. Writers-Lawyers													
	Maturity of Interests (17 year age group)	92												
	Occupational Level (high school males)	62												
	Masculinity-Femininity (high school males)	37												
	SPECIAL APTITUDE													
	Mechanical Aptitude													
	PERSONALITY													
	Minn. Personal Inventory													
	Morale	20												
	Social Adjustment	8												
	Emotional Adjustment	10												
	Economic Conservatism													
	Family Adjustment	50												

Claimed Vocational Interest _____ doctor, politician, lawyer, writer

Educational Objective _____ college degree

Outside record:

Blank High School Record

Date Entered September, 1946   Date Withdrawn _____   Date of Graduation _____

Size of Graduating Class _____   Rank in Class _____   Total Credits _____

I	Subjects	Grades	II	Subjects	Grades
III	Subjects	Grades	IV	Subjects	Grades

Dates	EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES RECORD		EMPLOYMENT RECORD			
	Activity		Date	Job	Supervisor	Rating

PLACEMENT AFTER GRADUATION

Dates	Position	Employer	Location	Yearly Salary	Remarks

ADVISERS' REPORTS _____ HONORS _____ PROGRESS NOTES _____ OBSERVATIONS _____

Date

Fig. 7 (*Continued*).

a better position. He has considered going into the Army. He had vocational experiences as a paper boy and route manager.

Claimed vocational interests in order of importance are doctor, politician, lawyer, and writer.

He states he is nearsighted. In rating himself, he says he is capable, impetuous, reserved, bashful, talented, conscientious, irritable, and anxious. He says he daydreams frequently. On a problem check list, he double-checked the following problems: I have too few social contacts; I have been unable to determine what I would like to do; I am not interested in my studies; I do not know how to break certain habits I have; I do not have enough vocational information; I have trouble making myself study. (A double check indicates the student would like to discuss these problems with a counselor.) He wrote voluntarily, "I put off work, work by spurts and have difficulty concentrating on certain subjects."

His standardized test scores are charted on the graph in Figure 7, with the exception of his interests as compared with those of men engaged in various occupations. If the counselor prefers he can report test results thus:

ACE:

	Percentile Rank		Percentile Rank
Q	32	Iowa Placement:	
L	88	Chemical Aptitude	96
	—	Co-op. General Achievement:	
Total	69	Social Studies	82

	Percentile Rank		
Personality Inventory:		Significant ratings on Strong Vocational Interest Blank:	
Morale	20		
Social Adjustment	8	President of manufacturing	
Family Adjustment	50	concern	A
Emotional Adjustment ..	10	Social science teacher	A
		Personnel manager	B+
		Chemist	B
		Physician	C

		Norms	Percentile Rank
Maturity of Interest		17-year-olds	92
Occupational Level		High school males	62
Masculinity-Femininity		High school males	37

A glance at these percentile rankings shows a wide divergence in the student's ability to handle quantitative concepts [2] (numbers) as compared with his ability to handle linguistic concepts (words) as measured by the American Council on Education Psychological Examination; the expecta-

[2] See Q score, which is below average, and L score, which is superior.

tion of success in reading subjects, superior achievement (82d percentile) in social studies; and the suggestion of problems of personal adjustment.

Judging from his social-adjustment rank in the eighth percentile and other test data, one would expect this boy to be unhappy about his social adjustment, to feel inadequate and insecure in social situations, and to have difficulty in getting dates. He probably does not "belong" to any group even though he may attend meetings.

If personality test results are supported by other evidence, the counselor may decide that he needs counseling. The student's own voluntary remarks on this individual inventory [3] indicate that he would be receptive to counseling, that he recognizes his problems and wants to work on them. He voluntarily lists nine problems hinging on social adjustment, vocational outlet, school adjustment, and feelings of apprehensiveness about himself.

If the counselor could get rapport, the boy would probably express his deeper attitudes and feelings about himself and discuss his relationships with boys and girls. This mental catharsis would help him to take the "fear" out of social situations as well as enable him to grow in social competence.

The student might derive a feeling of security from making a vocational choice even though it might be tentative. The interest-test ratings would support J. O. in his claimed interest in politics, but the choice of physician is contraindicated. Vocational possibilities that were not mentioned by him are managerial or executive work, teacher of political science or social studies and related fields, or personnel work. Social competence contributes to success in all these fields. This appears to be the area where the student needs help.

The boy's scientific interest has weak support from his B rating in chemist. His 37th percentile M-F [4] rating on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and his 32d percentile ranking on the Q section of the ACE are not favorable to scientific-technical choices. The Q section measures ability to deal with quantitative concepts. The masculinity-femininity rating does give support to verbal occupations such as teaching, personnel work, etc. His 82d percentile ranking on the social studies achievement test indicates adequate subject-matter background for welfare uplift occupations such as teaching. Because this boy is only seventeen years old, he

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[3] Autobiographical questionnaire previously mentioned in this chapter.
[4] The Strong Vocational Interest Blank includes a key which distinguishes between masculine and feminine occupations. A high masculinity score may be interpreted to mean an interest in scientific occupations. A high femininity score indicates interest in verbal occupations.

should be retested in a year or two. However, a rank of 92d percentile on interest maturity indicates his interests have patterned as compared with boys of his age.

The tests are helpful in dealing with the vocational problem because they support one of his claimed interests and give alternatives. The tests would support him in his desire to go to college. From his B average and his rank on the ACE and achievement tests, one could predict success for him in college. The occupational level at the 62d percentile indicates that he is interested in the professions and likely to complete a college education if finances will permit.

The adviser can use the mental-ability test scores and grades to confirm the boy's plans for college entrance and interest test results to confirm his tentative vocational choices of politician or lawyer. The adviser will also want to introduce information regarding these and other possible vocations.

It is entirely possible that his social and emotional problems will respond to counseling and recede before he completes his professional training.

Understanding the Student Population

The faculty and staff are in a position to satisfy the needs of their students only if they know something about the nature of the student population. A comparison of their achievement and mental test results with those of other college populations will help to determine what to expect of the students in their own college. Measurements of attitude, adjustment, and interests will help the faculty and administration to understand the behavior and needs of their students. Gaps in services and curricula can be identified and the missing experiences supplied. The knowledge of how students in one curriculum compare with those in other divisions within a college can help the faculty to establish reasonable standards for achievement or perhaps to determine new standards for selection.

Differences in measured intelligence were found in 1938 among 355 colleges using the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. Freshmen medians when converted into Otis I.Q. equivalents ranged from 94 to 122. The freshmen median I.Q. in the median college was 108. One-fourth of the freshmen in the lowest ranking college had I.Q. equivalents of less than 90 and only one-fourth exceeded 100 (224: 89).

These findings also have implications for the guidance of high school students who expect to go to college.

Great differences exist between the schools and departments on the same campus. Hahn and MacLean (86:211) report that one division of a high-ranking university had an average I.Q. equivalent for freshmen below that for the high school seniors in the state. Differences in measured academic ability were reported by Eckert and Marshall (61:93) between high school students in college preparatory, general, business, and vocational curricula in the high school. Moreover, they found differences in ability needed in different sections of the same class, depending on teacher standards.

Kefauver (105) reported a nation-wide study of the I.Q.'s of boys in high school courses, which showed a range from a median of 92 in trade schools to 114 in college preparatory technical schools.

The use of tests to study the nature of the student population at Mac-Murray College are described by Dysinger (59:70).

We have examined the achievement of students in different departments of the College; we have compared our students with others through the general norms; we have compared the students who remain on our campus for four years with those who transfer to other institutions after the second year and with those whose second year is terminal; we have examined the relative standings of our scholarship students; we have studied our grade distribution in the light of these results. We have given considerable attention to students who have high scores in the tests and low grades reported from the classroom, feeling that the College could improve its service to this group. We have been equally interested in those who have received much higher grades in class work than they have in the standardized tests. The sophomore test results are a veritable mine of information for the college, and this is the chief value of the battery.

Academic Level. An illustration of the use of tests to learn something about the nature of a student population is given here.

The American Council on Education Psychological Examination (ACE) was used in a study of the Kansas State College population (139). The average percentile rank of students in each curriculum was calculated according to the local college norms. While it was found that Kansas State College students conformed closely to norms established on the basis of data from 211 colleges, there were wide differences between the level of ability in various divisions of the college and between beginning students and upper-class students in the same division.

Some of the findings will illustrate what kinds of information might be gleaned from such a study. By the fourth year, the median for each curriculum was well above the median for the student body as a whole, with the exception of one curriculum. In other words, students of low ability as measured by the test were eliminated during four years of college.

Students entering mechanical engineering ranked below average, but those who survived had an average rank at the 71st percentile in the senior year. Elimination took place in every engineering curriculum except two. High standards for the selection of students accounted for survival in one and transfers of students from more demanding curricula to the other depressed the rank of seniors in the other.

An important conclusion from this study was that engineering students with poor linguistic ability, as measured by the ACE, tended to be eliminated. While entering students averaged higher in quantitative ability than in linguistic ability, by the senior year there was little difference between the two. The L (linguistic) score predicted success in the engineering school equally as well as the Q (quantitative) score, but neither was as reliably predictive as scores on the Iowa Physical Science Aptitude Examination,[5] which correlated .64 with the L subtest and only .44 with the Q subtest. Apparently the completion of most engineering curricula at this college requires verbal aptitude.

The average percentile rank of students in business administration rose from 29 in the freshman year to 55 in the senior year. Students in industrial chemistry were apparently eliminated between the freshman and sophomore years. Their rank rose from 45 in the freshman year to 74 in the sophomore year.

A gradual process of elimination took place in the general agriculture curriculum from a rank of 32 in the freshman year to 42 in the senior year. This was also true of students in agricultural administration, where average rankings progress as follows: 24, 35, 38, 48; and in agricultural education, where scores ran 29, 27, 38, 41.

Selection took place in the school of veterinary medicine at the end of the first year of preveterinary work. Academic ability apparently did not operate as a selective factor during the following five years. The average rank for both freshmen and seniors in this curriculum was 58.

This study has implications for placement of students in curricula and for evaluating the extent to which the college is meeting the needs of the students, as well as for understanding the nature of the student population.

Data of this nature help the faculty adviser to estimate a student's chances for success in a given curriculum. Given information about the success of graduates in a certain vocation, the faculty might draw conclusions as to whether the standards for the selection of students for that curriculum should be raised.

In making a report of this kind to the faculty, the student personnel

[5] *Iowa Physical Science Aptitude Examination*, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Iowa, Iowa City, 1943.

worker would be wise to avoid the impression that he is sitting in judgment on the shortcomings of the college or any part of it. If possible the cooperation and support of the faculty and administration should be secured before the study is begun. After all, problems of this nature are common to most colleges, not peculiar to any one. If the faculty and administration feel threatened or penalized by the results of the study, little improvement toward satisfying the needs of students could be expected.

A similar study was carried on in a school attended almost exclusively by sons and daughters of scientists and carefully selected government officials. These pupils had had a variety of interesting experiences and had attended comparatively good schools. Their parents had been chosen to fill positions which demanded superior ability. In their homes, they had access to a liberal supply of professional and popular literature.

As one might assume, achievement and ability among these pupils proved to be above average, according to test results. Still, the faculty and administration needed to have their assumptions confirmed. The study made it possible to estimate how much above average their students ranked as compared to the general elementary and high school population. While in areas of general information the pupils made superior scores, the tests revealed gaps in training which could be supplied. Some students who fell below the average in achievement as compared with classmates were still within the average group as compared with national norms, a finding which made it easier for teachers to understand these children. Special provision was made, in terms of the test results, for challenging activities for the brilliant students.

Maintaining a high scholastic standard in a school does not necessarily indicate that the school is serving the needs of the community. In one high school of high scholastic standards, it was discovered that students with I.Q.'s below 100 generally became discouraged and dropped out (101:44). Yet these students were expected to compete for jobs and assume the responsibilities of citizenship. Further study of the nature of this school population would have helped the staff to meet the particular needs of its students.

Reading Problems. A diagnostic study of reading problems in a junior high school revealed that retarded readers knew how to use phonetics to figure out unfamiliar words, but they were slow readers and did not seem to expect to get meaning from the printed page. Such a study might lead to a revision of teaching methods in the elementary grades.

Interests. Ranking on the occupational level scale of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank indicated in one high school that a large proportion of the school population was inclined toward the skilled trades. A follow-up study on graduates revealed that few enrolled in college. The

result was a revision of the predominantly college-preparatory curriculum.

Differences were found between Kansas State College freshmen and the students of other colleges with regard to interests as measured by the Strong Vocational Interest Blank (238). The greatest discrepancy between Kansas State norms and Stanford norms was found on the occupational level scale. Kansas State College students appear likely to prefer the concrete, the practical, the real and tangible to the symbolic activities involved in academic work.

Differences were found between men and women students with regard to maturity of interest. Freshmen men tended to rate lower on the maturity scale than the Strong sample of 1,000 men, while freshmen women tended to rate higher.

These findings, like many others reported here, apply principally to the institution where the studies were made. However, the studies illustrate how measurements can be used in any school or college.

Failing Students. Understanding the characteristics of failing students should be important to the school or college staff. Problems of academic failure among college students during one semester were studied by Newberry (239). Limited scholastic ability and low measured achievement were characteristics of failing freshmen. Thirty per cent of the group ranked in the lowest five per cent on English achievement. The fact that 11.2 per cent of the group ranked above the 75th percentile of their class in scholastic ability indicated, however, that other factors are involved in academic failures.

A tendency toward undersocialization among failing freshmen was suggested by low scores on the social-adjustment scale of the Minnesota Personality Scale. Among a sampling of failing freshmen, more than twice as many made scores which fell below the 50th percentile as made scores which ranked above the 50th percentile. Darley (51:485ff.) found that excessively high scores indicating oversocialization were associated with lower grades.

Exceedingly high scores on the family adjustment scale suggested overdependence on family operating to inhibit achievement during the first semester away from home.

Although 35 per cent ranked in the lowest 10 per cent of their class on reading tests, only 1.3 per cent indicated that they were aware of reading difficulties.

Understanding Resistance. Understanding the student population involves insight into the nature of resistance, a factor which has been mentioned before in connection with the group processes. Overcoming resistance to learning and to change is one of the problems of the class-

room teacher. A check list and scale was developed by Torrance (239) to analyze the phenomenon of resistance in individuals and in groups. He found resistance in students to be closely related to overdirection and domination by leaders and also to the status of the student in the classroom.

Individuals who are neglected or rejected by other members of the class are most resistant to change and learning new material. . . . Ineffective and resistant learners were unable to make positive evaluations, while the more effective members were able to make both negative and positive evaluations. Effective group members more frequently assumed roles as coordinator, harmonizer, information-seeker, encourager, and opinion seeker; while the ineffective members were more frequently opinion givers, challengers, deflators, playboys, special interest pleaders, and dominators.

Understanding the nature of resistance is a step toward transforming it into positive will and creative ability.

Social Characteristics. Hints regarding distinguishing characteristics of one college student body found in Halbower's study (88) were mentioned in a previous chapter. He compared the scores of sorority members on the Minnesota Personality Scale with those of unaffiliated college women. A greater percentage of deviates (those who rank either in the highest or lowest 10 per cent) as measured by the morale scale fell in the unaffiliated group, suggesting either lack of faith in society's institutions or extreme naïveté and uncritical acceptance of society. More undersocialized women were found among unaffiliates, indicating lack of self-confidence in social situations, according to the interpretation of the social adjustment scale. Among sorority women, deviates on the Economic Conservatism Scale were predominantly ultraconservative, while among unaffiliated women, deviates tended to be very liberal. Considering that only a small percentage of the total enrollment of women were sorority members, these data would appear relevant to understanding the student population.

Personality. Hahn and MacLean (86:261ff.) call attention to the influence of motivation, interest, and emotional maturity on performance. There is an increasing number of instruments which help to measure these factors.

The following report illustrates how some of these measures were used in the study of a segment of a college population.

Characteristics of ten Kansas State College students in their junior year of the home demonstration agents' curriculum were studied by means of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination (ACE), Strong Vocational Interest Blank, and *Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory* (Hathaway and McKinley, University of Minnesota Press, 1943). The mean test profile is as follows:

	Percentile	
ACE (Scholastic Ability)	68	(KSC freshmen norms)
Strong Vocational Interest Blank:		
Occupational Level	55	(KSC freshmen women)
Masculinity-Femininity	53	(KSC freshmen women)
Interest Maturity	67	(KSC freshmen women)

	Rank
Group I. Artistic-Medical	B
Group II. Engineering-Scientific	C
Group IV. Agricultural-Technical	B
Group V. Social Welfare	A
Group VIII. Business Detail	B−
Group IX. Business Contact	B+
Group X. Writers and Lawyers	B+

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory:

	T Scores
?	50
L	53
F	48
K	66
Hypochondriasis	50
Depression	47
Hysteria	56
Psychopathic Deviate	51
Masculinity-Femininity	52
Paranoid	51
Psychasthenia	53
Schizoid	54
Manic	48

Torrance (238) interprets the test results as follows:

From these results, the average Junior HDA might be described somewhat as follows. She possesses definitely above average scholastic ability when compared with her classmates. Her interests, attitudes, and values closely resemble those of people who find satisfaction in the social welfare occupations. It may thus be inferred that one of her primary motivations is a social welfare one which she should be able to satisfy through her chosen profession. She is also very much like business contact people and people in the verbal occupations like journalism and law. She has many interests in common with farmers. She is least similar in her interests to scientists and business detail workers. She maintains a balance between her preferences for the concrete and real as opposed to the abstract and theoretical and has accepted in an average degree the values and attitudes of her sex. She has also maintained a superior degree of maturity in her interests and is likely to have a well developed sense of responsibility. She is essentially a normal, well adjusted personality. In responding to the personality test she is neither

evasive nor tries to make herself appear better or worse than she really is. She is unconsciously defensive about herself to a rather strong degree, however, and her supervisor should recognize this in trying to help her develop. She also appears to have a somewhat strong tendency to desire the approval of others which she will probably try to satisfy through her job.

Curricular and Vocational Placement

Intelligence, achievement, special-ability, and interest tests help the student to choose suitable curricula, activities, and vocational objective. According to a study of self-appraisal in the Philadelphia junior high schools (265:81ff.), a testing program plus group discussions and individual interviews between teachers and pupils resulted in focusing attention on a more thoughtful career and curriculum choice and improved understanding of pupils and progress toward individual adjustment to home and school problems.

The value of vocational tests in placing teen-age boys and girls in jobs has been studied over a period of years by the National Institute for Industrial Psychology (England). Judging from job stability, satisfaction, earnings, and other criteria, those who were counseled from test data were significantly more successful than those who were counseled without testing (3).

The efficiency of tests in the selection of Army pilots was demonstrated during the Second World War. When no selection and classification tests were used, about one-half of the group were eliminated; with the use of tests of selection, failures were kept down to from one-third to one-fourth (57).

Achievement. Tyler [6] discusses the use of achievement tests in the placement of students, tests which will enable students to demonstrate their previous learning wherever it has been acquired and enable the staff to place the student at that point in each major course where he is prepared to proceed with considerable chance of success and without duplication of previous learning.

Achievement tests may be used with other indexes to predict success in given subjects. "Proficiency in a given task may be an index of promise in a related task, and knowledge of certain types of facts may be indicative of facility for the learning of other types of facts" (224:147).

Extremely high or low scores on the Iowa Placement Tests seem indicative of students who are most likely to succeed or fail. However, these tests are not replaced annually by new forms as are the Cooperative Test Service tests. Of the Cooperative tests, Super (224:153) says:

[6] Tyler, Ralph W., "Achievement Testing and Curriculum Construction," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 399ff.

In view of the moderately high relationship between scores on these subject matter achievement tests and grades in appropriate courses, they may well be used in helping students evaluate their prospects of success in various major fields in high school and college, in placing students in sections for which their background qualifies them and in selecting students for courses of training which emphasize mastery at a higher level, of the same type of subject as that covered by the test.

Frels and Callis (73) found that the Cooperative English Tests, forms A, Mechanics, and B2, Effectiveness, can be used to predict scholastic achievement in college with accuracy at least equal to that of the ACE.

Intelligence. The use of intelligence test results in predicting success in college was studied by Ellen Smith (239). Four counselors and four college students who had completed a course in counseling techniques cooperated in making predictions from test results and from a combination of test results with autobiographical sketches and individual record blanks. Counselors and students were able to predict survival with accuracies ranging from 59 to 85 per cent. Using either the lowest 10 or the lowest 20 per cent on the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, survival could have been predicted with 68 per cent accuracy.

Accuracy in predicting a change from one curriculum to another by the beginning of the second year ranged from 62 to 89 per cent. This could have been done on the basis of scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank with an accuracy of 66.5 per cent. Counselors tended to be more accurate in predictions than college students. Training and experience seem to be important in accuracy of prediction. Accuracy in predicting grade-point averages was improved by the use of personal documents with standardized tests.

Scores on the ACE yielded coefficient of correlation of .42 with grade-point averages for the first semester. Clinicians achieved correlation coefficients ranging from .46 to .53 for the total group, while students achieved correlations from .41 to .47. Using personal documents, counselors' predictions correlated with grade-point averages, ranging from .50 to .69. Counselors and students found it easier to predict for women than for men.

With regard to vocational placement, a study by Proctor (174:306ff.) indicates the level of ability at which people can operate in an occupation without strain.

He tested 1,500 high school students in 1917–1918 and followed them up thirteen years later. When classified according to the occupational level of their jobs, the mean I.Q. ranged from 97 in semiskilled occupations to 108 in managerial positions and 115 in professions.

Two intelligence tests were used in the study of selection of employees in a utility company. Only 5.5 per cent of test-selected personnel were considered problem employees as contrasted with 29 per cent of the nontest-selected group (249:183*ff.*).

Aptitudes. Measurement of aptitude for a given field can help in predicting success for the individual in that field.

Spache (216:105*ff.*) mentions the use of Cardall Primary Business Interests Test, Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers, Bennett Stenographic Aptitude Test, and Turse Shorthand Aptitude Test for high school students in the commercial curriculum and also for all students who rank high on the clerical section of the Kuder Preference Record. Pupils scoring high in the mechanical area of the Kuder Preference Record were asked to take the Minnesota Paper Form Board Test, the Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test, and the MacQuarrie Test for Mechanical Ability. The Meier Art Judgment Test and Seashore Measures of Musical Talent were given to pupils who showed an interest in those fields.

In addition to intelligence and achievement tests, the Hershey Industrial School employs the Bennett Test of Mechanical Comprehension, form AA; revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test, Series AA and BB (test of spatial relations); Industrial Training Classification Test, Form A, by Lawshe and Montoux; Detroit Clerical Aptitude Examination; and the Kuder Preference Record in the appraisal of junior high school pupils (92:95).

In addition to some of the special aptitude tests mentioned above, the schools in Rochester, New York, use the Arithmetic Fundamental Test, form A, in testing for admittance to the Technical and Industrial High School. The Lewerenz Art Aptitude test is given when it seems advisable. Research is being done on the Purdue Peg Board and others (205:77*ff.*).

The Iowa Legal Aptitude Test shows promise as a predictive index of scholastic success in first-year law at the University of Iowa, according to Adams (1:18). Prelaw grade-point averages used with the test results increased predictive value in case of students who had taken all their prelaw training at the University of Iowa.

Stuit (223:29*ff.*) reported favorable results for the Iowa Legal Aptitude Test used in several schools and also on a law-administration test published by the Educational Testing Service. He mentioned several relatively new aptitude tests, including the Professional Aptitude Test and the Medical College Admissions Test. The latter is used by the Educational Testing Service for the Association of American Medical Colleges.

Dysinger (59:70) recommends the Medical Aptitude Test of the Association of American Medical Colleges for those considering the medical profession.

The Iowa Physical Science Aptitude Examination was administered to Kansas State College freshmen in the School of Engineering and Architecture in the fall of 1950. A product-moment coefficient of correlation of .63 was obtained between the total score and grade-point average for the first semester. A coefficient of correlation of .54 was found between scores on the science information subtest and first-semester chemistry grades of engineering freshmen. This test seems useful in counseling engineering freshmen. A comparison of grades in first-semester chemistry with scores on the Iowa Chemistry Aptitude Test yielded a product-moment coefficient of correlation of .66 (238).

Strang (219:23) gives examples of tests which have been designed to predict a student's success in certain lines of study or work, Luria-Orleans Modern Language Prognosis Test, Orleans Geometry Prognostic Test, Hoke Test of Stenographic Ability, Engineering Aptitude Test.

Tests of manual dexterity, clerical, mechanical, nursing, art, and music aptitude together with other data can be useful in helping students make suitable vocational and curricular choices. Warnings are frequently found in professional literature, however, with regard to the interpretation of these tests. Of mechanical aptitude tests, Stuit [7] says:

> In this field, as well as others, the test user must be especially skeptical of test names. Unless he knows that the abilities measured are related to the job in question he may be seriously misled by the test scores. . . . Unless the test user knows that the test in question measures the pattern of abilities required on the job or in a particular course of study it behooves him to proceed with extreme caution.

He offers a similar suggestion with regard to the use of clerical aptitude tests. On the same subject, Remmers, Elliot, and Gage (184:385ff.) caution that advisers should not assume predictive value from the names of tests. Similarly Marsh (128:103ff.) discovered that the home adjustment scale of the Bell Adjustment Inventory is more useful in evaluating social and emotional adjustment than are the social and emotional scales.

Super (224:6) believes that information about personality traits and social data are needed in addition to knowledge about aptitudes, abilities, and interests in order to evaluate a person's vocational prospects. He says these factors are relatively neglected and describes questionnaires, personal data forms, information-gathering interviews, rating scales, essays, and autobiographies which add relevant items of information.

With regard to the use of tests to appraise aptitude for school subjects and occupations, Warters (252:38) says, "Like tests of general intelligence,

[7] Stuit, Dewey B., "Significant Trends in Aptitude Testing," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 68.

however, these tests show what a student can do rather than what he will do. Consequently the counselor must also know the pupil's personality characteristics which indicate how well he will use his abilities, general or specific."

While research is limited on personality traits as they relate to success in a given occupation, there is considerable evidence to indicate that social and emotional satisfactions on the job relate to success. Certainly, we might expect people with certain types of adjustment to have trouble succeeding in any type of training or occupation.

We know that underachievement in the classroom or on the job may be caused by underlying conflicts, experiences of rejection, or emotional strain.

Diagnostic instruments can help the counselor to identify individuals who would need therapy before attempting to make a vocational choice and those who cannot solve their educational deficiencies without improving adjustment.

With regard to specific traits necessary for success in a given occupation, it seems reasonable to assume that the individual's degree of socialization would be significant in making a vocational choice. As Super (224:485) says:

If he is outgoing and his associates withdrawn he will have one kind of difficulty, but it may be solved by changing associates rather than by changing occupations; if he likes sedentary mental work rather than active contact work, he may be a writer of books on his research rather than a promoter of the financing of more research or the administrator of a research project; if he is socially dominant the assembly worker may be the social leader or the thorn in the flesh of his fellows, rather than a follower or isolate in the group. They will all be happy or unhappy in their work, depending on the ease with which they make the modifications which it requires in their modes of behavior.

Super cites studies showing that nursery school children as well as college students were able to make changes in surface modes of adjustment which helped them to function more effectively in their social groups.

Interests. While intelligence, aptitude, and educational background set the limits, to some degree, to placement in curriculum or vocation, the application of an individual's abilities and knowledge depends considerably upon his interests and motivations. Interest tests are valuable instruments in the placement of students in appropriate curricula and their choice of vocation.

The *Strong Vocational Interest Blank* (by E. K. Strong, Jr., Stanford University Press, 1927 and 1938) is available in separate forms for women and men. The men's form consists of 400 items grouped according to type of content: occupations, school subjects, amusements, personal peculiarities,

vocational activities, factors influencing vocational satisfaction, etc. The women's form of 400 items includes 137 items relating particularly to women's interests. Items are rated according to like, dislike, or indifferent. There is no time limit. It compares the degree to which the individual's interests are similar to those of men and women who have remained employed in a given field.

The Strong interest blank has been used successfully with people between the age of fourteen and adulthood. Although it is a mistake to assume that all students in their teens or indeed that all adults have fixed or mature patterns of interests, there is considerable evidence that the instrument can be useful in counseling high school students. Super (224:409) believes that it is sufficiently understood by most high school students to be applicable at that age. He states (224:441) that

. . . the development of interests has been seen to be well under way by adolescence, for by age 14 or 15 the interest patterns of boys and girls have begun to take forms similar to those of adults, and these patterns are generally modified by increasing maturity by becoming more clear cut, and by a tendency, in boys at least, toward great socialization of interests. By the time boys and girls are from 18 to 20 years of age their interests are fairly well crystalized.

The men's form can be scored for more than 40 occupations and the women's for more than 20 occupations and traits, including masculinity-femininity, occupational level (toward professions or trades), and interest maturity. The scores are most meaningful in relation to each other and in relation to other test rankings, personal data, and clinical observation. Several high rankings in a given family of occupations are more valuable than a single high score.

The interpretation of interest pattern can be illustrated by the following case. The student had A ratings in sections of the test which measure interest in the work of life insurance salesmen, YMCA secretary, and engineer. A B rating in the section measuring interest in the work of physicist and a B in the section relating to an interest in mathematics supported the choice of some scientific-technical occupation such as chemist, engineer, physicist, etc. The choice was further supported by a scholastic ability score in the 85th percentile and high rank in science achievement. Less support was evident for other choices.

While it is probable that the results of interest inventories are most useful in predicting success when used to supplement other data, mention will be made of some of the studies which indicate the usefulness of the Strong inventory.

Goodfellow (81:649ff.) found that teachers' college students who rated A on appropriate scales made significantly better grades than those

who rated C. Strong's study of dental students showed similar results (221:523*ff.*).

Strong found that 56 per cent of life insurance salesmen who scored A on his life insurance salesman's interest scale sold $150,000 worth of insurance per year, whereas only 6 per cent of those who made scores of C sold that much insurance (221:487*ff.*).

Bills (23:97*ff.*) reported from a study of 588 casualty insurance salesmen that 76 per cent of those who made low scores on the life insurance and real estate salesmen's scales of the Strong blank were failures, while only 22 per cent of the high-scoring group failed.

The use of interest inventories is supported by Darley's (50:21*ff.*) study, which reveals discrepancies between stated interests and measured interests.

Warters (252:39) suggests three additional instruments for measuring vocational interests among students of high school age: the Cleeton, the Gentry, and the Kuder inventories. The *Kuder Preference Record* (Science Research Associates) was designed for use with high school and college students. A short form for use in business and industry was published in 1948. It is easy to administer and score and the statements are simply worded. Norms are available for 44 men's occupations and 29 women's occupations, plus curricular norms for women college students in 24 different fields. More work is being done on norms for the Kuder.

Students who show on the preference record strong tested interests in a given field tend to complete training in that field and to show aptitudes related to their tested interests. Student responses to items in the preference record are useful to the counselor during counseling interviews, aside from the predictive value of scores.

Some criticisms leveled at this test are that some of the items are transparently phrased and thus results may be somewhat distorted; norms were derived from small groups in a given occupation; more evidence is needed to support the validity of this instrument. More research is needed to facilitate the interpretation of scores.

Aids to Interpretation. In addition to providing the faculty and administration with information about the nature of the student population and the degree to which the school is meeting the needs of its students, the student personnel staff can assist in the interpretation of test results. Information regarding the nature and purpose of a given test and its application should be available to faculty advisers.

The following explanation of the *Occupational Interest Inventory* (Lee and Thorpe, California Test Bureau, 1943), taken from a handbook for high school personnel workers (274), illustrates how the student personnel worker can help the faculty member.

As its title suggests it is an inventory of occupational interest and not a test of occupational abilities and skills. The test attempts to measure motivation in general fields of work or families of occupations. The last four items listed below are non-occupational scales, but help in getting at the type and level of a student's interest.

Interests measured by the Occupational Interest Inventory are classified into six types. A high rank in the Personal-Social area would suggest a choice of occupation involving association with people or service to people, such as domestic service, personal service, social service, teaching, law and law enforcement, health and medical service.

The Natural field includes agriculture and conservation of natural resources.

People with high scores in the Mechanical field would probably be interested in processing, manufacturing, building and repairing.

Included in the Business field are selling, management, office work, banking, etc.

Areas sampled in the Arts are crafts, painting, drawing, decorating, landscaping, drama, radio, writing and music.

Scientific activities cover laboratory routine, mineral-petroleum production, applied chemistry, biological research, scientific engineering and other related occupations.

Areas measured by the inventory can also be classified as verbal, manipulative or computational. Verbal occupations include sales promotion, management, writing, lecturing, teaching and drama; manipulative occupations include shipping activities, handicrafts, painting, typing, machine operation, repairing, nursing, surgery, and others involving work with the hands or feet. Computational interests include bookkeeping, accounting, investment, scientific research and all phases of engineering.

Interest levels vary from those which require simple, routine and unskilled activities to those which involve originality, inventiveness, careful planning and professional skill. By means of thirty situations, in each of which associated activities are presented on three levels (low, medium, and high), the individual reveals by his choices whether his preferences are consistently low, medium, or high and gives a clue to the level of occupations to which he might be guided.

If a student has no rating above the fiftieth percentile, it may be that his interests have not yet patterned, and cannot be defined. At times, no interest pattern means immaturity. Other times it means that something has interfered with normal interest development. Disagreement between the student and his parents about a vocation can be a factor.

Additional information is given in the same handbook with regard to interest tests.

The interest test measures the degree to which the pupil's interests are similar to those of people successfully engaged in various occupations or families of occupations. The results are useful in helping the student choose a vocation, courses, and activities.

Not all high school students will have well developed interest patterns, but

those who do will benefit by being able to identify them and relate their courses and activities to them. It is possible that the discovery of a vocational interest will provide the necessary motivation for an underachiever to improve his school work. It can prove an integrating factor in the treatment of personal problems. If it is possible for the student to make an early vocational choice, he can save himself time and expense.

However, if there is no definite interest pattern it is better for the pupil to delay a vocational choice in the interest of accuracy. Interest patterns are subject to change with maturity, and therefore retesting with an interest test, such as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, in the senior year would be sound procedure.

Claimed interests of students are sometimes based on sentiment or hero worship or the wishes of parents and thus will disagree with tested interests. Sometimes an emotional problem is involved and counseling is indicated.

Interest test results should be used in relation to other test results and data other than test results.

Patterns in Test Results. A combination of scholastic-aptitude test results, achievement test results, and high school averages proved a better predictor of success in college than any single index, according to a study of predictive value at the University of Minnesota (260:1*ff.*).

Brogden (35:173*ff.*) found that satisfactory performance on a job could be predicted with greater accuracy with several differential predictors than with a single predictor. According to his study, a battery of predictors with a low intercorrelation can be used with greater accuracy than a battery of predictors which correlate highly with each other. However, the use of a battery of predictors which correlate with each other produced more accurate predictions than accrued from the use of a single predictor.

Patterson [8] reported a follow-up on 144 adults who were counseled in the light of elaborate testing and case data. Predictions made in 1932 as to the probable type and level of occupational competition were found to agree in 77 per cent of the cases with occupational status in 1942. He recommends the use of a summary letter to each counselee, giving test results and suggestions for employment or training.

Illustrations from Case Studies. The following comments and case summaries illustrate the type of help the student personnel worker can give the faculty adviser through handbooks or bulletins.

Recognizing the fact that only 20 to 25 per cent of high school graduates will attend college, the high school adviser feels a responsibility for giving vocational guidance to students whose tested interests are clearly pat-

[8] Patterson, Donald G., "Developments in Vocational Counseling Technique," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 90*ff.*

terned. He can be of assistance to students planning to attend college or trade school as well as those who expect to find work at once. Problems in this area vary with every interest pattern, with degrees of ability, and with personal adjustment. The adviser will find that he cannot isolate the problem of vocational choice but must treat the *whole* student. A few examples of vocational guidance are given here. Although some of the cases are taken from the files of college counselors, they have implications for counseling high school students.

B.B., a high school senior, consulted her adviser because she was undecided whether or not to attend college and she needed information regarding vocational opportunities. B.B. also manifested a lack of knowledge about herself. She was not sure what her interests and best aptitudes were.

She stated hesitantly that she had thought of journalism or the teaching of English as vocational choices. Her high school grades were superior to excellent. Her score on the mental-ability test was very high. Her teachers judged her able to take responsibility and exercise leadership. She participated in high school activities and made a contribution to the life of the student body.

Her scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank for men suggested relatively few vocational interests. Her interests were somewhat similar to those of YMCA secretaries and social science teachers, a pattern indicating a welfare-uplift interest. Also strongly indicated by the test was an interest in sales work and advertising. Her femininity score was the highest possible, implying interests similar to those of other women. A high femininity score suggests an interest in the verbal occupations and a lack of interest in the scientific occupations. Her score on the key which measures occupational level of interest ranked her in the 16th percentile. This apparent lack of professional interest, combined with a high femininity score, suggests homemaking as a probable interest. Also confirmatory was the fact that her interest maturity rank was in the 88th percentile, a score which indicated that her interest pattern was apparently fairly well established.

The student made highly satisfactory scores on the sections of the Minnesota Personality Scale relating to morale and social adjustment.

The adviser interpreted the test results to mean that although this girl would be likely to make satisfactory grades in college and adjust readily to college social life, she would not be interested in professional training.

When the occasion arose to make a choice between a career and marriage she would probably choose marriage. Experience indicates that a student with this interest pattern will not be motivated to complete college or to continue professional training. The parents may wish their

daughter to go to college, but they should be prepared for the eventuality that she may not finish.

These comments should not be interpreted to mean that these findings are unfavorable. High intelligence, industry, leadership, welfare-uplift interests, high morale, and social adaptability are, by all means, to be desired in the homemaker, and she should be able to find an outlet for her abilities in home and community activities.

If she attends college, a curriculum in arts and sciences with specialization in the social sciences and psychology might be suggested, with the understanding that the student might not want to complete a college degree. Some classes in home economics might be of value. If she does not go to college, she might like sales work.

This student is only sixteen years old, and her interest pattern might change with maturity. Subsequent checks with the Strong Vocational Interest Blank are recommended.

N.P. went to his adviser for vocational guidance near the end of his senior year in high school. He had made a tentative choice of engineering or some technical occupation. His high school grades were excellent and his teachers rated him superior in leadership qualities, industry, strength of character, and ability to accept responsibility. He ranked in the 60th percentile on the Ohio State University Psychological Examination, a better than average score as compared with college freshmen. His scores on the sections of the Minnesota Personality Scale relating to social adjustment, family adjustment, and emotional adjustment were superior, and his rank on the morale section was excellent.

His scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank indicated that his interests were very similar to those of farmers. He had A interests in carpentering and printing.

If he attended college, a good choice would be agriculture. Second choice would be industrial arts or a skilled trade. He ranked in the 22d percentile on the occupational level key, or away from the professions and toward the skilled trades. He stated that he had seriously considered farming as a vocation. This student might be satisfied to begin farming at once and give up college.

D.A. was described by her teachers as industrious, trustworthy, and cooperative but lacking in initiative. Her high school grades were good, but her rank on the mental ability test was in the 11th percentile as compared with college freshmen.

She requested information concerning occupations which would require less than four years of training.

Her scores on the Strong Vocational Interest Blank indicated interest in dentistry, medicine, farming, and business. Her masculinity-femininity score was slightly inclined toward the scientific occupations.

A retest of mental ability might be a good idea.

Dental technology would be a possibility for this student. Training is less strenuous than for medicine or dentistry and would provide an outlet for her scientific interests. Stenography or sales work were also suggested by the interest test results. An inferior score on the social adjustment area of the Minnesota Personality Scale implied a problem which might interfere with business as a choice of occupation. If supporting evidence was found to indicate a problem of social adjustment, counseling might help this student. Scores on all other sections of the test were satisfactory.

I.N., a twenty-five-year-old schoolteacher, was referred to the bureau for counseling. Her ACE score was in the upper 15th percentile, indicating high scholastic abilities. Her college and high school records were superior and achievement test rankings were excellent. Tested interests were A in artist-author-librarian keys and A in the sections relating to teaching and all social professions.

She showed no serious personality problems except the possibility of poor social adjustment. Background information revealed that she had been adopted at an early age by a farm couple and had been reared virtually alone. She had been unable to mingle with high school classmates or participate successfully in their activities.

Three years of teaching experience had been an ordeal because of shyness. She was unable to feel successful in her contacts with parents, students, or other teachers. Her teaching positions had been in small towns where she had no opportunities to attend good musical productions, plays, or art exhibitions and where even library facilities were limited.

Weekly counseling over several months produced no apparent effect on the problem of social adjustment. The major problem appeared to be one of making another vocational choice which would require less aggressiveness and, possibly, provide an outlet for the client's aesthetic interests. Library work appeared to be indicated equally with teaching.

The counselor defined the situation, presented the alternatives, and gave the client information regarding opportunities in library work. The client applied for work at several libraries and eventually took a part-time position in a city library while taking training in library science. She wrote the counselor that she was happy in her new job and now had access to recreational activities which interested her.

If the client had been younger, the possibility of improving her adjustment would have been better. Possibly if the client could have been coun-

seled for a longer period of time, she could have overcome her retiringness, and in that case, she might have felt success in the teaching profession for which she had a strong tested interest. This girl, however, needed to make her own living, and she was obliged to find a quick solution for her problem. In this case the vocational choice was made to conform to the personal problem. In similar cases, it may be possible to improve the adjustment to conform to the strongest vocational interest. The high school adviser would have attacked the problem of social adjustment first by counseling and making it easy for her to get into socializing activities. Vocational guidance would have included pointing out that library work was a possibility and furnishing information on the subject. The high school adviser can apply this illustration to cases of social retiringness in the high school and its relevance to vocational choice.

P.T., a twenty-one-year-old college student, was making inferior grades in premedical work. Her ACE score ranked in the 99th percentile, and achievement scores were average to superior. English usage, spelling, and vocabulary were just above the median. Science achievement was in the 90th percentile.

Tested interests were very similar to those of successful physicians and dentists. Secondary interests were indicated in the work of engineers, chemists, farmers, carpenters, and author-journalists.

She stated that it was her lifelong ambition to be a physician. She was unable to account for her poor grades. She had been refused admittance to medical school. The client revealed during the course of two interviews that her mother had denied her affection and had disciplined her children by threats of suicide and other emotional devices. The counselor defined her feelings of guilt and ambivalence toward her mother and her feeling that her mother did not understand her.

In a later interview, the client revealed her need for affection, praise, and approval and her fears in social situations. She described her competition with a brilliant brother, who received the recognition she desired. The counselor defined her feelings.

The following week she disclosed that her aunt and cousin with whom she lived were taking responsibility for her. She felt rejected because the counselor had only fifteen minutes to spend with her. During the next interview she found it difficult to talk. The counselor defined her feelings. During the eleventh interview P.T. wrote 2½ pages of notes summarizing her problem and progress to date. She showed insight into her feelings of inadequacy and her relationship to her mother. The counselor helped her to clarify the picture.

Between the eleventh and sixteenth interviews, the client showed in-

creasing insight. Her grades rose to A's and B's, but she did not improve in social skills. Progress seemed to level off. The counselor suspected that she was clinging to the problem because of feeling acceptance in the counselor-client relationship. He suggested transferring to another counselor.

At this point, after four months of counseling with the first counselor, she was transferred to another counselor. She had six contacts with the second counselor, and they were spaced over a period of eight months. In the fifth contact she expressed her reluctance to give up the support of the counselor and her suspicion that she was delaying aggressive behavior because of satisfaction accruing from counseling. She recognized that she was substituting her contacts there for social life. In the final contact, four months later, she spoke easily about her previous difficulties. She had really been working on her problem. Permanent progress in social skills was manifested.

This case illustrates how a personal problem can be overcome to permit a suitable vocational choice. While the high school counselor may not have time for such extensive clinical counseling, he should be aware of its possibilities. Attention to the problem while the student was in high school might have saved her many painful experiences.

Evaluation

Achievement tests have been widely used for evaluating academic progress of students, the degree to which they have acquired the basic skills of communication and have learned the information given in the classroom. In some cases the results of tests and retests have been used for locating weaknesses in the curriculum and teaching methods. Schools could make more use of tests for the latter purpose.

Achievement. Achievement testing as an aid to curriculum building is discussed by Tyler.[9] He suggests the use of achievement tests to appraise particular learning experiences as they may or may not contribute to given types of objectives.

He also describes the effect of achievement testing on the formulation and clarification of objectives.

In the first place, the task of achievement test construction provides a continuous reinforcement to curriculum building by helping to clarify objectives. It is quite possible to formulate objectives for the curriculum in vague and inexact terms. But if these objectives are to be used for purposes of achievement testing, they must be precisely understood, since they are the specifications for the test,

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[9] Tyler, Ralph W., "Achievement Testing and Curriculum Construction," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 399*ff.*

the statements of the behavior that is to be measured by the test. Unless the behavior can be clearly described, it is not possible to set up tests to sample it.

The effect of achievement testing in clarifying curriculum objectives, I first noted in some of my early testing work at Ohio State University. Our achievement tests were constructed on the basis of specifications drawn up in each case by the staff of the particular course or field. The staff was asked to state these specifications precisely enough to describe just what kind of behavior the course was expected to develop in students. In one of the biology courses the staff worked a good many hours clarifying its own conception of what the objectives were and what they meant, finally being able to define each of them concretely in terms of behavior. . . . The staff saw the importance of defining objectives clearly because as soon as they were clearly defined, it became easier to find testing devices which would give evidence of their attainment. . . . Not only was such clarification essential for testing; it also provided a more adequate basis for outlining the course and deciding on the teaching materials and methods.

Tyler says that achievement tests also help educators to state objectives in terms of student behavior and thus to provide a concrete basis to guide in the planning and development of the educational program. He discusses their use in the study of habits, practices, knowledge, attitudes, interests, and problems of students and the gaps in their learning.

Illustrations of the contribution of achievement testing to improved organization and integration of learning experiences were given.

Since the evaluation tests were to be used to measure the degree to which students had learned to integrate, to carry over ideas from one field to another, and to generalize to broader areas some of the skills and abilities and concepts they have developed in particular fields, work on these tests gave an important stimulus to the instructional staff to plan more definitely for integration. In this case achievement testing served both to stimulate further attention to integration and to provide a means of checking periodically the degree to which the students had actually integrated the learning from various subject fields.

Findings from the tests are put into usable form for instructors at the University of Chicago, according to Tyler.[10]

The average score of the class and of each section on each of the major objectives which the tests have been constructed to measure are usually available. For the natural science course, for example, these figures may indicate that the students have attained very well a knowledge of facts and principles but have advanced much less in their ability to analyze natural science problems and to draw upon facts and principles of natural sciences to solve these problems. This at once suggests the points where further attention is needed in the curriculum.

[10] Tyler, Ralph W., "Achievement Testing and Curriculum Construction," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 399ff.

Each student's score is also given, so that the instructor can understand individual difficulties and progress. An item analysis is also given so that the instructor may note particular items which have caused difficulty and others on which the students as a whole have been successful. "This provides a more detailed basis for identifying aspects of the course needing improvement." Tyler says achievement testing can help to focus the attention of the instructor on the individual student and on the results of instruction in terms of what changes have been effected.

With regard to integrating the several parts of the school program, Tyler [11] has this to say:

Close communication should be maintained between the instructional staff and those responsible for the testing work, and joint participation of the two groups should be arranged at several points. The effort to define the educational objectives of a course or program does not help the instructional staff unless it actually participates in the operation. . . . Unless the testing personnel work in this way and the administrative arrangements permit and encourage it, the desired results are not likely to be achieved.

Dysinger (59:62ff.) describes the use of the following achievement tests at MacMurray College: Cooperative General Culture Test, Contemporary Affairs Test, Cooperative English Test. He says they enable the college to measure student growth on the campus, to compare achievement with norms established through results from the better institutions over the nation, and to supplement its grading system with independent measures of achievement.

The problem of student deficiencies in the basic English skills is so common that research seems urgently needed to determine to what extent the schools and colleges are meeting the needs of the students in this area. Virtue (248:199ff.) found that out of 2,700 students who took the examination in a seven-year period at the University of Kansas, 22 per cent failed. Students of high ranking ability, according to the ACE, were among those who failed.

Shaffer (206:373) studied the relationship between English deficiency and social adjustment. His findings suggest that personal problems increase among students who are deficient in English. He also found that English deficiency (a discrepancy between measured ability and English achievement) was a significant factor in determining the marks received in economics, English composition, English literature, foreign language, government, history, laboratory sciences, psychology, and sociology.

[11] Tyler, Ralph W., "Achievement Testing and Curriculum Construction," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 399ff.

Selterer (204:305) used two forms of the Cooperative English Test to test freshmen before and after a seven months' period of remedial instruction and found that they made progress as compared with the normal national advance.

Nordberg (162:153ff.) worked with groups of student teachers to determine their awareness of implications of research on the testing of spelling at the secondary school level. He decided that more attention should be given to training teachers for teaching the basic skills.

Moore (140:388ff.) described a writing clinic established at the University of Illinois. Gates, Nolde, Thomas, and Wright are among those who have written on the subject.

The study described below will illustrate the way in which a school or college might begin evaluation of procedures and services to students in this area.

A study of students who failed to pass the English requirement for graduation at Kansas State College suggests means of evaluating the degree to which a college is satisfying the needs of the students. Glotzbach (79) compared students who failed with students who passed the English proficiency examination given in the junior year of college. (From 20 to 25 per cent of the students fail each time the examination is given.)

Students are placed in written communications classes according to their rank on the Cooperative English Test, which is given before enrollment in the freshman year of college. Selection of students to receive remediation is made from the lowest 20 per cent.

Glotzbach's study indicates that persons who rank lowest on usage, vocabulary, or the total score on the Cooperative English Test tended to be eliminated from the college before the junior year. Among those who survived, only 22 per cent of the students who failed the English proficiency examination had ranked in the lowest 20 per cent on the Cooperative English Test, given in the freshman year. This remediation had not been available for 78 per cent of the students who eventually failed the English proficiency.

While scores on all scales of the American Council on Education Psychological Examination were higher for those who passed than for those who failed, as many as 46 per cent of the students who failed ranked in the upper half of the norm group on the total scale of the ACE. Low scholastic aptitude could not account for all failures. As might be expected, the L (linguistic) scale differentiated better between those who failed and those who passed than did the Q (quantitative) scale.

Students who ranked low on the spelling section of the Cooperative English Test, but survived until the junior year, commonly failed the

English proficiency test. Forty-five per cent of those who failed the English proficiency test ranked below the 30th percentile on the spelling scale of the Cooperative English Test.

The failing group had a C average in basic English courses; many of the failures had A and B grades in one or both of their written communications courses. Only 17 out of 114 students who failed the English proficiency test had less than a C average in these courses.

Scores on the Cooperative Reading Test, taken before enrollment, differentiated between those who failed and those who passed the proficiency examination.

Significant differences were found between the two groups on the morale scale of the Minnesota Personality Scale (53), given to freshmen at the time of enrollment. Higher scores were made by those who passed.

Forty-seven per cent of the failures on the proficiency fell between the 20th and 49th percentiles on the total scale of the Cooperative English Test. If passing the proficiency test is used as a requirement for graduation, we might assume that this group needs more help prior to proficiency testing. Judging from Glotzbach's findings, more thought should be given to criteria for classification in English classes. Reading and spelling skills might be used as criteria for selection of students for remediation. If spelling skills are not used as criteria for classification and help is not given in spelling, possibly spelling errors should not be so heavily weighted in scoring for English proficiency.

These questions arise: Does the English proficiency test measure skills the student will need after leaving college? If so, do the basic English courses teach these skills? What methods should be used for selecting students for remediation in English? The study suggests the need to investigate methods of teaching English in the elementary and secondary schools.

Failures and Withdrawals. A study of failures and withdrawals among students could help the faculty and administration to understand their student population and evaluate the degree to which the school or college is serving the needs of the students. Strang [12] calls attention to the need for studying these problems:

Examination of high school records in several school systems has shown that from one third to one half of the high school pupils are not doing academic work commensurate with their ability. Early withdrawal figures show that, on the average, half of the students who enter college drop out before graduation for a variety of reasons. The rate varies greatly among different institutions, in one being as low as 14 per cent, in another as high as 73 per cent.

[12] Strang, Ruth, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, pp. 13ff.

In addition to lack of mental ability and poor study habits, Strang notes the following conditions which contribute to failures and withdrawals: absence of stimulating school atmosphere or spirit, want of opportunity to feel oneself a responsible member of the group, lack of educational experiences that meet the needs of each student, lack of reasonable and stimulating assignments, and inefficient reading habits.

The percentage of students in a selective university who were asked to withdraw on account of poor scholarship ranged from 7.26 per cent in 1937–1938 to 14.09 in 1942–1943 (232).

Results of intelligence tests and other tests give information with regard to the types of students who withdraw.

A study of academic failure during the fall semester, 1948–1949, at a Middle Western college revealed that 4.7 per cent of the enrollment was dismissed, 4.9 were placed on probation, and 2.8 withdrew, making the total of 12.4 per cent of the total enrollment which might be considered casualties (239). A study of entrance test results indicated that about one-third of the academic failures were due to low scholastic aptitude, one-third to emotional maladjustment, and the other third to miscellaneous difficulties.

Measures of adjustment, attitudes, and interests would doubtless reveal causes for failure or withdrawal other than lack of ability. Further investigation might also suggest new services for meeting the needs of the students.

A follow-up study (238) on 1,215 freshmen showed that 38 per cent of this number did not enroll for the sophomore year at the same college. Of this number, more than one-half were in good academic standing at the time of withdrawal. Of 512 students who achieved less than 1.00 average, 266 remained in college.

Questions raised by this study were stated as follows:

1. What kind of special services, now being offered by the college, should be made available to all freshman students?

2. What kind of administrative machinery, if any, should be set up to help them make a better academic adjustment?

3. Why do students in good academic standing fail to continue with their college training?

4. Is the college admitting a large number of students with inadequate learning skills for college work?

Procedures for handling marginal and failing students were also studied (238). Students who were denied reinstatement and eventually returned to college tended to make slightly better records of avoiding further academic discipline than those who were reinstated immediately. Thirty-five per cent of the students appearing before the reinstatement

committee ranked in the upper half of their class on tests of scholastic ability.

A study of students who dropped out of college was made by Stackfleth (239) by means of the ACE scores and a questionnaire of 23 items. In a class of 2,166, a total of 998 students withdrew from college during two and a half years. Of these, 131 were in the lower 10 per cent of the class and 71 were in the upper 10 per cent, according to ACE rankings.

A questionnaire inquiring into reasons for withdrawal was sent to the entire group, and 41 per cent were returned. More returns were received from high-ability students than from low-ability students. Some reasons given for withdrawal are listed below, with percentages of responses indicated:

	Per cent
To accept a job	30.50
Finances inadequate	27.36
Dissatisfaction with college:	
Courses not giving what student wanted	21.79
General dissatisfaction	15.98
Courses not interesting	10.17
Poor instruction	9.93
Poor housing	9.20
School or faculty not interested in student as person	8.47

Less than 27 per cent of the dropouts had been placed on dismissal or probation lists.

These questions arise: Can the college improve its services to students in areas of methods of teaching, curriculum revision, placement of students in the curriculum, housing, personal interest in students, financial aid, and a general curriculum designed to meet the needs of students of low ability?

Democratic Skills and Attitudes. Instruments other than achievement and intelligence tests can help the administrator and teacher measure the extent to which the school is satisfying the needs of the students and preparing them to meet situations which will confront them when they leave school. Sociometric devices, personality tests, self-rating sheets, problem check lists, questionnaires, etc., can be used in the study of personal development and the degree to which students are able to overcome adjustment problems. Measures of social attitudes and social behavior can give some idea of the success of the school in developing in students the skills and attitudes necessary to understanding each other, getting along with fellow workers and fellow citizens, and taking citizenship responsibility.

The following instruments were used to evaluate progress in social study

classes toward good citizenship, habits of critical thinking, and socially desirable attitudes.

Social Beliefs (175); Examination in Civics (243)
Examination in Problems of Democracy (244)
Cooperative Community Affairs Test (46)
Watson-Glaser Tests of Critical Thinking (253)
Interest and Activity Checklist (104)

Analysis of test results from five high schools indicated that:

1. Students in most of these schools were making progress in respect to knowledge of the structure and processes of government but less progress with respect to understanding the relationships between government and society and less progress in respect to knowledge of their own community.

2. Students were making little progress toward ability to formulate and apply generalizations.

3. Little progress was noted in the ability to recognize assumptions in argument.

4. Uneven progress was found toward skill in recognizing the relevance and validity of evidence.

5. With some exceptions, little progress could be found in developing abilities for critical thinking during the high school years.

6. Attitudes toward nationalism were little changed.

7. As many students favored militarism as looked with disfavor on it.

These findings with other factors might lead to curriculum revision and a program to improve teaching methods.

Personality. Instruments which help to measure progress of students toward personal adjustment are also available.

The use of objective measurements is mentioned by Rogers (188:318) for evaluating gains made by participants in therapy groups.

Nelson's study (238) illustrates one way in which the effectiveness of an educational program might be evaluated. She used retests of the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Minnesota Personality Scale to measure progress of 108 college students during two years of college. Some of her findings follow.

1. At least one-third of the total group apparently made gains in social adjustment, family adjustment, emotional adjustment, occupational level, and interest maturity and toward the norm on the economic conservatism scale.

2. Gains in social adjustment were made by 50 per cent of those claiming membership in 4-H clubs, 50 per cent of those participating in departmental clubs, 38 per cent of those participating in athletics, 65 per cent of those participating in religious organizations, according to test results.

3. Fifty per cent of those who participated in religious organizations and

50 per cent of those who participated in departmental clubs had achieved greater emotional stability, as measured by retests.

4. Only 27.8 per cent of those ranking in the lower 30 per cent on the ACE appeared to have made gains in emotional stability, while 57.9 per cent of those ranking in the upper 30 per cent made such gains.

Other results of this study are reported in an earlier chapter.

Sociometric devices administered near the beginning of a semester and near the close of a semester indicated progress toward group cohesiveness and increased acceptance of isolates among residents of a small college dormitory (239).

The following thumbnail case studies (271) will illustrate how test results were used to evaluate the effectiveness of counseling in cases of emotionally disturbed students.

K. G. W. was a twenty-four-year-old veteran referred for alcoholism. At the time of his referral, he was depressed and anxious, failing most of his work, unhappy with school, and drinking heavily and regularly. He came in for a series of five interviews during which he relieved many of his anxieties, abstained from alcohol, and changed his vocational choice to one more appropriate to his abilities and interests. At the time he was referred, his measured I.Q. (Wechsler) was 101; at the time he made his change of curriculum about five months later, he was functioning at an I.Q. level of 119 and was passing his work. He was ultimately graduated and accepted a job appropriate to his training.

A.G. was a twenty-three-year-old Navy veteran frightened that his marriage was about to be wrecked and failing in most of his college work. Psychological examinations described him as a very disturbed individual. He had engaged in numerous delinquent behaviors as a boy; he had never planned to enter college before he entered the service; his wife was a college graduate and the daughter of a college professor and had influenced him to enter college. All these factors engendered a high degree of anxiety and he suffered many conflicts in his marital relationships. Through counseling distributed over a year, he faced and met many of his problems of marital adjustment and at the end of the year he felt that his marriage was a success. Psychological examinations at this time revealed that he was much less disturbed emotionally, his pattern of interests had changed, he was able to make a different vocational choice more appropriate to his aptitudes and interests, and his wife was able to accept his decision. Progress was measured by means of tests and retests, using the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Strong's Vocational Interest Blank.

As these illustrations indicate, the counselor uses test results, not as isolated bits of information, but in relation to other data. The individual's

achievement test rank and his school marks are studied in relation to his I.Q. The interest and personality test results have meaning in cases of underachievement. Attitudes, personal development, intelligence, and achievement as well as interest and aptitude are relevant to vocational choice. Test results may either confirm or disagree with reports of parents, teachers, high school principal, or the counselee.

Additional Services

Additional services by the personnel staff to the faculty and administration might include assistance in the development and standardization of tests and in calculating local norms by which the students can be compared with their own schoolmates.

Summary

Intelligent use of tests and measures produces information which aids the educator and personnel worker

1. To understand the individual and help him to understand himself
2. To understand the nature of the student population
3. To make possible suitable vocational and curricular placement
4. To evaluate student progress and the degree to which the school is satisfying the needs of the students

All these functions of testing involve the study of personality and emotional and social adjustment, as well as achievement, intelligence, aptitude, and interest. The student personnel staff is responsible for helping the faculty and administration to make the fullest use of test results and to interpret them as accurately as possible.

Orientation of New Students to High School and College

Problems of New Students

Lacking the ability to understand themselves and evaluate their potentialities accurately, young people are unable to set realistic goals. This is a conclusion which might be drawn from Torrance's (237) study of the self-concepts of more than 1,000 entering Kansas State College freshmen who rated themselves during orientation days. Self-ratings did not agree with test results in a large percentage of cases. About half of the students were unable to decide upon realistic vocational objectives. Over two-thirds of the students who are dismissed from the college grossly overevaluate themselves. Over half of those who are placed on probation or are reinstated overevaluate themselves.

This evidence confirms what educators already suspected, that college freshmen need information about themselves to help them choose suitable curricula and vocations. It would be safe to assume that entering high school and junior high school students would be at least equally naïve about their own abilities.

Contributing to their confusion may be a lack of information about the school or college curricula, services, and activities. To these two related problems, add the strain of adjustment to new surroundings, new demands, and new acquaintances, and you have an approximate view of the situation in which the new student finds himself.

The orientation of adults to industry and to service in the armed forces is given serious consideration (76:81). The problems of students entering our colleges and secondary schools should receive equal understanding and attention.

The adjustment required of a rural student attending a city high school or junior high school for the first time is considerable. It is a step away from parental authority and toward independence. The student is thrown

more nearly upon his own resources than ever before. He may stay away from home during the school week. He makes more decisions for himself than ever before. He must make new friends, and he wishes to be accepted. He has doubts about his ability to handle the new situation. He is arriving at the stage of development where he is in conflict over his desire to be independent and his desire to remain under the sheltering wings of his parents. Even the small-town high school looks a little forbidding to the boy or girl who is accustomed to 10 or 15 schoolmates in a one-room school.

The students who enter the junior high school from elementary schools in the same city have the advantage of having attended programs and athletic events in the building and visited the school for various reasons, but they can use some help, too, in making an adjustment to new demands. The new student has studied principally the fundamental subjects. The new curriculum is varied. The old familiar group is broken up and many new personalities are added. New habits must be formed. McKee (132:55ff.) says, "These challenges come at early or mid-adolescent age, in itself a time of personal stress and emotional instability." He lists the following academic adjustments which are among those required of the new student in the secondary school:

1. The change from a unified curriculum under one teacher to a differentiated curriculum
2. Introduction to new subjects and new fields of learning
3. Meeting new teachers and experiencing new methods
4. Increasing demands for self-directiveness and efficiency in study
5. Higher standards of work and scholarship
6. More difficult textbooks and library aids

The new student may discover for the first time that all teachers do not agree. He may find that his new teachers give more attention to current life situations than did his elementary school teachers. He may be confused by the necessity for setting educational goals. He will find that there are more varied opportunities for extra-class activities than before.

McKee points out that social adjustments are also required. He lists, among others: overcoming class, locality, or cultural differences; meeting the relative impersonality of the secondary school; learning new rules of conduct and new methods of discipline; and using newly acquired freedom and social opportunity.

Of the college freshman, Snyder (215:28ff.) says, "If more orientation had been provided before the student had chosen his program, much . . . later maladjustment might have been avoided."

The adjustments demanded by his new environment are difficult even for the well-adjusted student. The college is even more impersonal than the high school. There are more choices to make, new people to meet, and

new facilities to use. Housman might have been speaking of a freshman when he described "a stranger and afraid in a world (he) never made." He wants to know where he fits in.

The college has a responsibility for making the adjustment as smooth and as profitable as possible for the student. To those members who are not familiar with the orientation program, the extra week or less of activities, lectures, and testing may seem a waste of time. Probably the orientation process sets the college program forward rather than holding it back. Acquainting the student with his new environment, new demands, new teachers and classmates, and his own strengths and weaknesses helps to put him in a situation where he can succeed.

Meaning of Orientation

Glancing through the literature on the subject of orientation, the reader gets a confused picture of the program. The term has a different meaning for almost every personnel worker. The orientation program may be a testing program or it may be conceived as a series of get-acquainted activities during a few days preceding enrollment, or it may be synonymous with a five- or six-hour required subject. If the process is incorporated in class, the classwork may be principally "How to live with other people." In some schools, the principal aim is to inform the student about the school. In others, the objective may be to help the student find out more about himself.

Before the student can realize full benefit from an education, not only the objectives of the school, but the individual's objectives must be defined. Orientation processes which the student may experience several times between the junior high school and the senior year of college do not accomplish this definition all at once, but they help appreciably to focus the student's attention on the definition and clarification of his aims.

Objectives

Orientation activities are intended: to help the student become acquainted with the offering of the school or college, with the physical plant, with the traditions and standards of behavior commonly observed, and with his classmates; to gather information about the student which will be of use in helping him make a choice of the most suitable curriculum and vocation or to confirm the choice which he has already made; to help the student evaluate the information and make progress toward understanding himself and to help him begin to overcome any personal problems which show up; to help him choose wholesome recreation and extra-class activities which are related to his interests; and to help him feel a part of the school. The student does not necessarily make a choice of vocation

during the orientation process, but he gets information which can be added to other facts and help him eventually to make an appropriate choice. The orientation process helps to smooth out the transition from relative dependency to a situation which demands independent action, study, and thought. It does not complete the transition, but it makes it less abrupt. The student is obliged to think about what he expects school or college to do for him, in the way of vocational training, education for living in the society of his time, and personality development. Assistance in the clarification of goals is one of the objectives of the orientation program.

Faculty Participation

Having become convinced that new students need special attention at enrollment time, the administration will then need to consider how to begin work on the project. Dresden (55:290ff.) suggests that the orientation program should start with a meeting of the faculty and the school administrators to discuss orientation.

The effectiveness of the orientation program is dependent on the degree to which the faculty believe in the program and assist with its planning and execution. Accordingly, the faculty should be consulted, in advance, regarding orientation plans and before such a program is initiated.

Subjects for discussion might be effectiveness of existing procedures for admission and enrollment; effectiveness of practices in other schools; the need for the help of a professionally trained personnel worker; the extent to which the faculty would share in the work of the proposed program; consequent changes in schedules and plans; relevant professional readings; and expected outcomes of the program. Meetings should give plenty of opportunity for all the faculty members to voice opinions. Authentic information should be provided so that the discussions do not become exchanges of prejudices and misinformation.

The school principal, dean of administration, dean of the faculty, or student personnel worker may wish to remain in the background and let the group elect a chairman from among the faculty members, but the administrator or personnel worker should see that facts and materials and studies are available. If the staff does not include a trained personnel worker, they should seek the advice of authorities from other schools and colleges or specialists on the staff of the state department of education.

If the faculty decides in favor of an expanded program of orientation, a faculty committee should be appointed to work with a student personnel worker or staff to prepare a plan for the consideration of the general faculty.

The principals and faculties of cooperating schools should also be given an opportunity to study and discuss the proposed plans, if possible, and

to offer suggestions. Communication might be maintained by means of joint meetings of committees from the high school and the junior high schools from which they draw their students or of junior high school faculty committee with elementary school committees, as the case might be.

Training Faculty. If faculty members indicate a willingness to assume responsibility for advising students, they would probably recognize the need for training in test interpretation and interviewing. The head of the student personnel program or possibly the dean of administration or high school principal might be expected to arrange meetings where data would be analyzed and the best methods of using it discussed. A faculty committee might be appointed to help plan the meetings.

Effect of Faculty Participation. Involving the faculty in the work of the orientation process is necessary to get the work done, but there are other important results. Faculty members improve their acquaintance with personnel methods and the student personnel point of view and become identified with the student personnel program. Support for the program is strengthened, and student personnel methods are extended to almost all parts of the school program.

Faculty members get more thoroughly acquainted with individual students. Valuable information about students is exchanged among faculty members and the student personnel staff and recorded in the cumulative record form. Communication between the student personnel staff and faculty is made easier.

Choosing Procedures

Orientation procedures should be chosen with the goals of the school and the needs of the students in mind. The faculty will need to consider what mediums are available and suitable for giving information about the school, vocations, and the individual student; the best means of gathering information about the student; and how to ensure that the student will have experiences which will help him develop self-directiveness and a sense of responsibility for the good of the group.

Standardized Testing. Standardized tests provide information which helps the student to evaluate himself correctly, so that he can choose appropriate classes and set realistic goals. They have uses aside from their value to the orientation process.

The teachers might want to study a number of the many available standardized tests before making recommendations. The final choice might be left to the student personnel worker, but he should carefully consider their suggestions and explain his choices to the faculty.

The choice of tests would depend on the nature and level of the institution, but an intelligence test would almost certainly be included. It

would have significance during orientation in the choice of a curriculum and in the standards which the student sets for himself. Achievement tests help teachers to group students according to their handicaps or level of achievement. Personality tests give information relevant to a choice of vocation, to behavior of students, and to student problems. Interest tests are useful to high school seniors and college freshmen in helping them choose a vocation and a suitable curriculum. Sometimes vocational-interest tests can be used to classify the interests of junior high school students into broad fields. Some interest test results indicate whether the student is ready to make a permanent choice of vocation and whether he leans toward the professions or the skilled trades.

The ease and time of scoring and administration of a test may make a difference in its choice. The possibility of machine scoring should be discussed before a final decision about tests is made. Validity and reliability of each choice should be considered by the faculty.

The faculty will also want to consider when to administer the tests. If they are given in the spring, there will be ample time for the student to learn about himself and digest the information. There will be no rush in scoring and recording data. If they are given in the fall, the transfer students can be tested at the same time as the others. Colleges and universities are almost obliged to conduct the major part of freshman orientation activities in the fall because many of their students come from long distances and make their final decision to go to college in the summer after the high schools are closed. Some colleges send student personnel workers to the neighboring high schools to test and counsel high school seniors in the spring and some invite interested seniors to the college counseling bureau for processing during the spring and summer, but this procedure fails to reach a very large percentage of students and, of course, does nothing to produce solidarity in the group of new students. The secondary schools draw students largely from local schools and so are able to begin orientation activities in the spring.

Precautions. Everything possible should be done to keep the students from feeling apprehensive about the testing. The reasons for the testing should be made clear. Giving one of the easier tests first will permit the students to build up self-confidence and approach later ones with fewer disabling fears. The personal data questionnaire, interest test, or personality test might be given first since they are not timed and normally produce less tension than achievement or intelligence tests.

An interest test would probably not be given to sixth-graders about to enter junior high school, but one might be given to eighth-graders to measure broad fields of interest, since the following year would probably be the beginning of a more differentiated curriculum than formerly.

The repeated use of an intelligence test might be left to the judgment of the faculty committee or the student personnel staff. However, it is a good thing to have more than one intelligence test for each student. An average score probably represents a better estimate of a student's ability than the results of one test. Testing conditions, the quality of the student's experiences, and many other factors affect the score.

Personality tests might also be repeated with profit, since students change in adjustment. Probably no personality test would be given to sixth-graders, but one could be given at the end of the eighth and ninth years. Repeated testing would help the adviser judge whether or not personal growth had been made by the individual.

The limitations of tests should be discussed among the faculty.

Regardless of the time of year chosen, the testing should be scheduled to precede counseling and enrollment, in order that the test data and other records can be used in helping the students choose curricula suitable to their abilities and needs.

Check Lists and Questionnaires. Vital statistics and other personal data are sometimes secured by means of a questionnaire, check list, or auto-biography.[1]

The autobiography is sometimes used as an English theme to help in classifying the student or in diagnosing language difficulties.

Forms filled out by the former school principal,[2] adviser, or home-room sponsor are also used to collect information about the students who are entering a school for the first time. Two types of information can be secured, the students' actual grade record and the opinions of school authorities. Rating scales include such items as enthusiasm for schoolwork, intellectual ability, attitudes, emotional control, study habits, leadership, cooperativeness, ability to accept responsibility, etc. Acceptance of responsibility and degree to which the student uses his abilities are helpful items. Some forms provide space for ranking the student in the upper one-fourth, middle half, or lower one-fourth of his class in general ability. This index has predictive value. Rank in individual subjects, personality, and state of health are sometimes included. Physical defects needing attention are sometimes indicated. Opinions are solicited on the advisability of terminal courses, college entrance, type of curricula, etc. The opinions of advisers and school authorities when compared with the student's opinion of himself may reveal significant points of agreement and disagreement. The socioeconomic status of the family and other family data are sometimes given on the forms filled out by school authorities.

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[1] The use of the Self-inventory of Personal-Social Relations is thoroughly discussed in *Student Personnel Services in General Education*, by Paul J. Brouwer (36:173–216).

[2] See Chap. 8.

Forms to be filled out by parents are sometimes used for gathering information about students.

Counseling. The effective use of information gathered about the student should be discussed by the faculty. A sufficient number of professional counselors cannot be maintained to interpret test results and other data for all the students and to help them think through their problems. Therefore, all the students cannot be reached unless the faculty members help with counseling.

Dugan (58:45*ff.*) suggests an orientation interview with a counselor for each student. "This systematic approach," Dugan says, "provides a personal counseling contact for all students and offers them an opportunity to learn about immediate personal difficulties and identify potential adjustment needs or problems."

Wilkinson (256:469*ff.*) cites the successful use of the orientation interview for veterans entering college and suggests its application to civilian students. He believes it would help the student to feel recognized as a "real human being."

Counseling should follow testing and giving information about the new school and it should precede enrollment. The faculty adviser could enroll each of his advisees for the following term at the close of the orientation interview. Later contacts could be used for the purpose of helping the student evaluate his own progress, personal problems, and activities.

Personal contacts between new students and home-room sponsors, faculty advisers, or counselors should be a part of continuing orientation. A conference between the new student and his adviser should be set for the end of the first five or six weeks of school for evaluation and any help which the student wants. Voluntary contacts should also be encouraged.

Counseling is the one indispensable part of the orientation process. Information about the school is useful to the student only to the degree to which he understands himself and can choose curricula and activities which can satisfy his needs. Counseling is the part of orientation which helps the individual to understand himself. This is the most important use for the body of information gathered about the student during orientation.

Clerical Arrangements. In addition to assistance with planning the program and advising and enrolling students, the faculty are sometimes called upon to prepare records, score tests, and record test rankings. If the school is not financially able to provide the extra clerical workers necessary for the orientation period, enlisting the aid of faculty or students is the only recourse. This possibility should be discussed before the program is adopted, and the faculty should decide whether they want to share this work. Upper-class commerce students might help score tests.

Communication. A student personnel program involving both professional counselors and faculty members implies the need for constant communication between them. The professional staff must work out a method of presenting data which is easily read by the faculty, a routine which will make the information available when it is needed, workable procedures for issuing case folders, for reclaiming them when needed by other staff members, and for adding clinical data and advisers' notes to the case folders. Conferences between faculty adviser and student personnel worker should be arranged. Referrals should be provided for.

Involving Upper-class Students. The opinions of upper-class students should be sought on the proposed orientation program. They will have valuable suggestions to make and if permitted a voice in the decisions will feel committed to work on the program. It is important for new students to have an opportunity to get acquainted with upper-class students. When asked to rank orientation activities in order of their value, the 1950 Kansas State College freshmen indicated as the three most valuable activities those which afforded them contacts in small groups with faculty members and upper-class students (239).

Upper-class members can proctor tests, act as hosts and hostesses at social events, circulate, and see that lonesome people have a chance to meet other students. New students can be assigned to upper-class guides in groups of 20 or less for the duration of orientation days. They can act as guides to the testing rooms, auditorium, library, cafeteria, and on campus tours. They can help organize games during recreation periods and accompany students to the meeting with their advisers and introduce them to their advisers.

Student leaders who assist with orientation should have advance training by the personnel staff. Group techniques which would be useful are discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Social Events. Social events and recreation should be a part of the orientation program. They help the students to get acquainted, feel at home, and feel accepted by each other. They help to relax tensions and to alleviate the impersonal atmosphere of the school.

Dresden (55:290ff.) suggests that testing and informational talks be relieved by group singing, welcome parties, and assemblies. There are numerous other possibilities: picnics, watermelon feeds, movies, games, spectator sports, swimming, style shows, teas, musical programs, talent shows, and the like. Social events and recreation should be as carefully planned as any part of the orientation program.

The new students, themselves, should be encouraged to plan a class or home-room party or picnic early in the school year. While most of the planning and work of the event should be done by the students, they would

need some guidance to ensure that as many members as possible would participate.

Teaching Manners. Students in a new situation sometimes suffer because they are unfamiliar with social customs. Some secondary schools make the teaching of manners a part of the home-room program. Several home-room periods may be devoted to group discussions of manners and suitable reports. The series may be concluded with a party.

Glenn Burnette, principal of the junior high school, Manhattan, Kansas, reports that he queried the ninth-graders in his junior high school to find what help they desired most. A majority replied that they would like social dancing lessons, so this activity became a part of the continuing orientation process.

Giving the Student Information about the New School

In addition to information about himself, the student needs information about the school which he is entering. Printed materials, talks, classes, group discussions, displays, and visits are among the methods of giving information about the new school.

Publications. Handbooks about the school, newspapers, printed programs of studies, letters to students and their parents, bulletins and pamphlets, and college catalogues are among the materials which help the students become acquainted with their opportunities. The faculty should consider what sort of information can be given in print or by means of pictures, how much reading to expect of students, and what is suitable for the age of the students. Students themselves can help prepare the publications to be distributed to the new students.

Handbooks. The materials to be included in the school handbook should give simply stated, factual information about the school. It is not quite the same as the booklet which might be sent to a prospective student to "sell" the school. The handbook should give only information which will be useful to the student in becoming acclimated to the school. Information which is sure to be given in some other way should be weeded out so that the student will not be confused by masses of reading materials and duplication of information.

A calendar of events, traditions and customs, activities and services, election practices and student-government plan or constitution, intramural program, library facilities, school songs and yells, map of campus, and assembly and cafeteria schedules are among the subjects which are covered in the handbook. A note of welcome from some upperclassman or school administrator would not be amiss.

In some secondary schools, the school handbook is used as a textbook in the social studies classes and in the home rooms for the first few weeks

of school. Examinations over the contents may be given. Sechriest (203: 39*ff.*) mentions the high school handbook as an important device in the orientation of students. He suggests that it should be prepared by the student council under teacher supervision. Reavis (181:149*ff.*) found in 1938 that 45 out of 68 junior and senior high schools studied reported that they provided a handbook for entering freshmen.

Banks (15:12*ff.*) suggests that the high school handbook answer such questions as "What courses do I take for prenursing?" "How much time should I spend in homework?" and other common questions asked by parents and children. She believes that the parents and children should be asked to write down their questions about the school and that the cooperation of the faculty be secured in planning the book.

She recommends that the following items be discussed: the marking system, testing program, attendance regulations, requirements for promotion and graduation, use of lockers, safety precautions, care of books and supplies, class dues, loans and scholarships, college admission requirements, etc.

Valuable information regarding the contents of the high school handbook can be found in materials compiled by McKown (133:667*ff.*). Ideas for its preparation can be gleaned from the handbooks of other high schools. However, Chisholm (43:115) warns against too much clipping and pasting, lest the resulting book be remote from the needs of the school it serves.

The college handbook includes much of the same kind of information. Additional items which might be found in the college handbook are smoking and housing rules, town-college relationships, sorority and fraternity rush-week practices, student employment opportunities, and student-union facilities.

Some of the questions which should be answered when composing the school handbook are:

What do we hope to accomplish by this handbook?
Is the proposed information covered in any other publication?
Is the tone of the book warm, friendly, and informal?
Will the book help the student to know how to get where he has to go and where to go if he needs help?
Will it make him want to keep the rules or resent the rules?
Will it make him want to participate in student government and other school activities?
Will it help him avoid mistakes?
Is there anything in the proposed information which might just as well be left out?
Will he want to read it or is it dull?
Can he find different kinds of information readily?

Does it start with a subject which will be most interesting to a majority of the students?

Has anything important been left out?

The information in the handbook need not be presented in an autocratic or forbidding manner. The organization of the book, illustrative pictures or cartoons, inviting subtitles can make it more readable and more personal. The handbook which begins, "Students who have been absent from school should bring a written excuse. . . ." etc., may not kindle any enthusiasm in its reader. A description of student government entitled, "It's All Yours!" attracts a good deal more favorable attention. No student has to be made to read the item "How to Gripe Effectively."

A paragraph explaining rules can have an informal introduction, "Oh, there are rules . . . like women's closing hours, for instance. But rules are sort of like traffic laws. It would be an awful mess if we didn't have 'em."

"Can I find out how I did on the orientation tests?" begins a short explanation of the faculty advisory system. The title, "Skirts, Sweaters, Saddle Shoes" heads a few notes on suitable school clothes.

Valuable suggestions and inspirations for enlivening the content come readily from students, new students included. They can be asked to check the items which have been most useful to them and those which they have not used and to make suggestions for improvements while their orientation experiences are still fresh in their minds. The next handbook can thus be adapted to answer a real need of the students and at the same time the students will become even more familiar with the information in the booklet than if they were to take a test over it.

School Newspaper. Chisholm (43:115*ff.*) says that the school newspaper can be used to advantage in the orientation process and in the administration of the entire guidance program. He says that each issue of the paper should carry guidance news and that each article should fit into the series.

A special issue of the paper during the first few days of school in the fall would be helpful to the new students. It could carry necessary information and interesting news about orientation activities.

Publicizing Activities. During the first few days of school an assembly could be called to give information about the school activities and organizations. Student government should not be overlooked as an important activity. Upperclassmen might be asked to talk briefly on opportunities in extra-class activities. They could be further discussed in small groups, after which a time could be set for enrollment in activities. Booths could be set up in the halls where club members might distribute printed matter, exhibit posters, answer questions, and accept memberships.

Talks. General information which all students need is sometimes pre-

sented in lectures or informal talks by the school principal, college president, deans, head of the health department, president of the student body, or head of the student personnel program. Information about the school and its services, reasons for various procedures or regulations, and explanations of the orientation process can be given in this way. A welcome to the new students can be made to seem more warm and intimate if stated personally than when printed in a folder or handbook.

The orientation program should not include too many speeches, and they should not be long. They can be used to give facts but should not be exhortations to the students to do their best or to be loyal to the school. Students' behavior is not appreciably influenced by inspirational messages, and they are often alienated and demotivated by long and pontifical speeches.

Torrance (239) says, "In general freshmen react against speeches," but he cites one instance when the students rated the college president's [3] message to freshmen among the top four activities of the most value to them. It was short, full of orientation information, and included a welcome.

Talks by faculty members about their specialties and by industrialists and members of various professions can be used to give information about curricula and vocations. These should not be included in the few days which precede enrollment at the opening of the fall term of school or college but can be used in continuing orientation activities. They should be followed by group discussion.

Tours and Visits. A spring visit to the new school or a trip around the campus in the fall helps the student to locate some of the places he will want to go after school starts. Even if he forgets how to reach some of them and has to have help in finding them again, they will look a little more familiar to him. He would probably like to see the recreation rooms or student union, assembly rooms, library, cafeteria, nurse's office or student hospital, etc.

Visits to the upper school are very common among elementary and secondary school children, but visits to the college by high school students are harder to arrange. A quick campus tour during orientation days in the fall helps them to find their way around.

Information Booth. A staff orienting a large number of students is almost sure to be plagued with innumerable questions, "Where is the gymnasium? Where do I pay my fees? Can I get into geometry class without algebra? Did anybody find a red leather billfold?" It is a great help to a busy staff to have someone specifically assigned to take care of such questions. Some student service organization can usually be recruited. The

[3] James A. McCain, president, Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kans.

booth or station should be located at some point which must be passed by all new students, and it should be well advertised.

Small Group Discussions. Some orientation processes are designed to foster unity in the newly formed class, a feeling of pride and security in belonging to the group, and concern for the good of the whole group and for its goals. The class may be used as a unit for beginning self-government activities, or if large, may be subdivided into home-room groups or other units, depending on the nature of the institution. (If carried on over a period of several months or during the first year, orientation to the community and to world problems, such as the demands of representative government and the rights, privileges, and responsibilities of the individual, can be attempted.) Group discussion of these subjects, providing facts are made available, can be very profitable.

The first group meeting should include some time for introducing each member or letting each tell something about himself. After the students have had an opportunity to talk over desirable qualifications for school officers, the machinery can be set in motion for nominating and electing home-room or class officers or freshman council members, depending on the type of school and student-governing organization. Preparations for elections should take several weeks, so that the members will have a chance to apply standards and judge candidates.

The preoccupation in some schools with curricular and vocational choice and in others with the rehabilitation of the maladjusted may leave little time for this important part of the orientation and personnel program. The participation by students in making group decisions and in helping to govern the school is one of the most valuable kinds of experience they can have. It is through these live activities that they develop a feeling of responsibility for the good of the group and the necessary skills for getting along with each other. If these important areas of experience are ignored, the students will not be equipped to take responsibility in the school, community, or national government. Such activities also provide opportunities for self-realization and for overcoming personal handicaps. They should be a part of the orientation and personnel programs.

Continuing Orientation and Guidance. As we have indicated, orientation does not necessarily stop with the close of welcome parties and the beginning of classes. Froelich (76:81ff.) says, "Orientation is a continuing process." The program goes on with advisory contacts, group discussions, classes, home-room activities, social events, and referrals to professional counselors. Warters (252:165) warns that the student who finds himself feted one week and left strictly alone the next is likely to become discouraged and rebellious. He may feel that the friendliness of the school was misrepresented to him and that he is really very unimportant after all.

The orientation program is not a separate service from the rest of the student personnel program. It merges into and overlaps with counseling, testing, faculty advising, and group dynamics.

Summary

The discussion thus far indicates that

1. The new student needs help to understand himself and the school opportunities.

2. The faculty and upperclassmen can help orient the new student.

3. They should be permitted a voice in making decisions about the orientation program.

4. Information about the student can be gathered by means of standardized tests, school records, ratings by school principals or school advisers, ratings by parents, an autobiography or personal-data questionnaire filled out by the student himself.

5. Counseling the student individually is an important part of orientation.

6. Information about the school can be given to the student by means of reading materials, talks, group discussions, counseling interviews, tours and visits, and social events.

7. Information about the school includes curricula, activities and recreation services, physical plant, student government, rules and customs and reasons for them.

8. The faculty and administration should have the help of at least one trained student personnel worker.

9. The faculty and administrators assisting with orientation should have training in the interpretation of test results and interview techniques, they and the upper-class orientation helpers should have training in the use of group methods.

General information about orientation has been given in the preceding pages, most of which, with modifications, can be applied in either college or secondary school programs. Some details of the college program necessarily differ from those of the secondary school schedule.

Adapting the Orientation Program to the Secondary School

The secondary school orientation program is somewhat complicated by the fact that some schools operate on a six-three-three plan while others are organized in eight elementary grades and four high school classes. Thus, a junior high school may have the bulk of its new students in the seventh grade, a few new ones in the eighth grade, and most of the rural pupils entering the ninth grade. Then another break occurs when the ninth-graders enter high school. The junior high school principal must arrange for orienting at least two groups of new students, and the high school principal must also develop a program. However, most of one year's sixth-graders will go on, the following year, to the first year of junior

high school in the same town. Most of the ninth-graders will go on to high school in the same town, and so on. Even rural students are usually close enough for contact with the secondary school principal.

This means that gathering information about the students and giving information about the school need not be crowded into a few days before the opening day of the fall term. The program can begin any time during the school year.

Information about Curricula. Preparation for helping the student choose classes can be made during the latter months of the year. Information about the various choices can be given in the home room, in the classroom, or in other groups. The school principal or the student personnel worker would arrange with the staff of the lower school for faculty members to visit their prospective students and describe the work in the next school. The principal and students from the new school might also talk to them. Question periods and group discussions would be a most important part of the program. Classes which develop a vocational skill and college preparatory courses should be explained. A view of the coming four years should be attempted in the eighth grade.

A rigid schedule cannot be prescribed, but the following example could be adapted to the requirements of a given school. Suppose the ninth-grade pupils are being prepared for entering high school. A unit about the high school can be included in the social studies class; discussions in home room can be carried on concurrently. The autobiography can be required about the same time by the English teacher. Intelligence, achievement, and personality testing can be done before or during this period. Interviews with advisers following the study and testing would permit the student and his adviser to evaluate and summarize all the available information and match up the student's needs with the school opportunities. The student should then have time to discuss possibilities with his parents. Enrollment would be the concluding step.

If the authors' observations are correct, the orientation process which provides information about the secondary school is carried on with greater efficiency than the evaluation of individual abilities and needs. A great deal is done to acquaint the student with the academic offering and with the regulations of the school, but the breakdown commonly occurs in matching the individual's needs and abilities with the school offering. Experience has shown that complete knowledge of the school will not ensure the best use of an individual's opportunities. Neither is the student's own statement about his needs and interests completely reliable as a guide for selecting classes and activities.

If the adviser has at his disposal information from the individual and from standardized tests, as well as information from school and parent, he

has a better chance to help the student to compare and evaluate all information and make the most suitable choice than if he has only part of these data.

The proposed plan presupposes close cooperation between the staffs of the lower and the higher schools. Records follow the student from one school to another. If the junior high school advisers or home-room sponsors help the student to make his decisions, they will need communication with the high school personnel staff and administration, as well as training in the use of the information which has been gathered. An alternative would be for the high school counselors to visit the lower schools and pre-register the students (76:90).

Yearly spring discussions on curricular offerings for the following year and other school opportunities can be conducted with profit among all classes beginning with the eighth grade and continuing through the senior year of high school, the latter being centered around going to college or finding and keeping a job.

A spring orientation makes no provision for the transfer student. He can be cared for during the summer or by means of interviews with home-room teachers or counselors and by testing and group meetings during the first few days of school, preferably before enrollment. Froelich (76:81ff.) advises that the orientation of the transfer student should not be neglected.

Preliminary Visits to School. The distances between elementary schools and the secondary schools which draw enrollment from them are not usually long. Preliminary visits to the new school can be arranged.

A spring rural visitation day may be the device which is used to give the rural student his first glimpse of his next school. Escorts may be assigned from among the ninth-graders to show the strangers around. A variation is to assign the escorts from among eighth-graders so that the incoming students will know someone in the fall when they return.

The visitors may attend classes, eat at the school cafeteria, and listen to explanations by the junior high or high school principal. The students may take home with them a program of classes for discussion with their parents.

Some special entertainment may be arranged, an assembly, tea, or crafts exhibit, but it may not be well to combine the visitation with a field day, May day festival, or large school event, because it does not present a typical day and the new students may be ignored in the excitement of the day.

Similar arrangements are often made to help sixth-graders when they are advanced to junior high school. The spring move-up day, or whatever it is called, sometimes begins with a talk by the junior high school prin-

cipal. Home-room and classroom visits are made with the guidance of upperclassmen. Some schools make this an all-day event. If a spring visit is not practical, a tour of the building or campus can be arranged during orientation days in the fall.

Meeting the Parents. The cooperation of the parents with the school can be facilitated by a meeting with the student personnel staff and the administrative officials. This might take place during the spring orientation program before the transfer is made. The strain of the coming adjustment could be explained and questions of the parents answered. New demands on the students could be explained.

Letter to Parents. A letter sent in the early fall to the parents of new students explaining school policies and program makes it possibile for them to cooperate with the school. In general, the letter might contain a greeting to the parents, an invitation to visit the school and join the parent-teacher association, information regarding the time school opens and closes and the number of students enrolled, instructions regarding lockers and fees, regulations regarding bicycles and automobiles, an explanation of attendance requirements and permits to reenter school, the dates of vacations, and information regarding home visitation and appointments with teachers. An explanation of the health service provided by the school might be included.

The letter sent on enrollment day from Glenn Burnette, principal of Manhattan, Kansas, Junior High School, to parents makes a brief explanation of the way in which regular attendance affects state aid to the local school, pointing out that absences reduce the amount of money which the state provides. The effect of irregular attendance on achievement is also mentioned. It includes an invitation to parents to attend assemblies and reviews the importance of home and school cooperation.

Sample Schedule. The following is a sample schedule for planning and carrying on an orientation program for students who expect to enter the seventh, ninth, or tenth grades. It would, of course, be modified for use in each individual school.

October: Faculty meets to review the admissions and enrollment procedures; the success of the program is evaluated and suggestions made for next year.

November: Faculty committee on orientation is appointed; they study the situation, meet with student personnel staff and student orientation committee, report their observations to faculty, and receive suggestions.

December: Committee presents plan to general faculty for suggestions and approval; upperclassmen are chosen to help with orientation.

January: Faculties of both upper and lower schools meet with student personnel staff to discuss uses of data and interview techniques; upperclassmen begin training.

February and March: Group testing is begun; discussions start in all grades

above the eighth on curricula for next year; parents and school authorities fill out forms; personnel staff meets with parents.

April: Students meet advisers to discuss choice of curriculum; students discuss curriculum with parents; students meet advisers and enroll; rural visitation day (some rural schools close in April).

May: Spring move-up day is held, with tour of campus or building.

August: Handbook and daily schedule are sent out; transfer students are tested, counseled, and enrolled.

September: An all-school assembly is conducted in recognition of new students, at which faculty is introduced and activities are described; new students meet in home rooms; evening parties are held for new students, with upperclassman help, financed by student government.

Fourth Week of School: New students give talent show for upperclassmen; elect class or home-room officers.

Fifth Week of School: New students interview advisers individually to evaluate progress and choice of classes.

The schedule of testing, counseling, and enrollment is outlined for the spring preceding the students' move from one school to a more advanced one. The program thus described gives the student time to think about the choices open to him, the facts he has learned about himself, and the information he has been given about the curricula and vocations. There is time for him to talk with his parents, time for the test results to be recorded without haste, and time for more than one advising contact if desirable. The student gets acquainted with the new school gradually, and the change is not so abrupt. This plan gives the school more time for transfer students in the fall and makes it possible for the administration to estimate the number of sections needed for each subject, the number of teachers, classrooms, textbooks, etc.

This plan will work if the school population in a given city remains essentially the same from year to year and providing close cooperation can be established between schools. If the secondary school is located in a center where the population changes rapidly or if it draws its pupils from a wide area, from many small-town and rural elementary schools, possibly the program would have to be telescoped into a few days immediately before school starts in the fall. Otherwise prospective students would have to be called in for spring processing from their local schools, or the tests would have to be sent to them. The latter plan would mean that testing conditions would not be uniform, tests would be administered by untrained persons, and test results would not be so reliable as when administered by an experienced psychometrist. Dresden (55:290*ff.*) believes that the major orientation activities should take place in the fall because of the increasing mobility of the population and the transfers to public schools from parochial and private schools.

Even if advance orientation and enrollment are accomplished in the spring, the fall program should not be slighted. Many details necessary to efficient school membership will escape the new student unless the fall program is carefully planned and executed. The "get-acquainted activities" boost morale.

Vocational Orientation. Classes in occupations are often a part of continuing orientation for junior high school students and beginning high school students. Sometimes the subject matter on occupations is incorporated into a class in citizenship, the ninth-grade social studies class, and sometimes it takes the place of the entire citizenship course. (The study of the larger areas of citizenship *should not* be supplanted by a study of vocations, nor should the impression be left that making a living is all of living.)

After readings are assigned and the subject matter discussed by the class, visits to industries are often arranged. Speakers from the professions and business and industry are invited to speak to the classes. Conferences of one day or longer are sometimes planned to present information on vocations. Visiting experts lecture, lead group discussions, and interview the students individually. Appropriate displays and exhibits are provided. Such an event stimulates interest and provides information, but it is not a substitute for prolonged attention to the problem of vocational choice.

Actual work experience is often included as a part of the occupations course. It is not always possible to arrange for each student to experience more than one type of work, but occasionally arrangements can be made with community enterprises to permit each student to try out several kinds of work. Work experience may also be a part of the training offered by commercial, metal shop, food service, and vocational agriculture classes.

This is another situation where it is dangerous to ignore the individual's evaluation of himself and his potentialities. The results of his orientation tests and his classroom successes should be compared with job qualifications. Tests which measure clerical, art, music, scientific, mechanical, and manual aptitudes add to the individual's knowledge about himself.

Occupations classes are not helpful to a student unless they are combined with counseling, according to Froelich (76:106). He cites a study which indicates that choices made following a study of vocations without counseling were less realistic than earlier choices.

Guides to the use of occupations information in group instructional programs are postulated by Brayfield: [4]

"1. The emphasis should be distributed relatively evenly between psychological and occupational materials.

[4] Brayfield, Arthur H., "Putting Occupational Information Across," *Educational and Psychological Measurements,* 8, 1948, 485ff. (Reprinted in 34:216.)

"2. Study of self should precede study of occupations.

"3. Specific occupations should be organized around aptitude and interest patterns rather than around traditional classifications such as the Census and the Dictionary of Occupational Titles.

"4. Except for a brief overview of the entire world of work the occupational fields selected for group study should be chosen with due respect not only to the expressed interests of the members of the group but particularly with reference to the types of occupations likely to be followed by the majority of the members of the group.

"5. Each member of the group should review his work in the course with a trained counselor."

This discussion is not intended to convey the idea that all junior high school students should make a vocational choice. As we have explained elsewhere, many boys and girls of that age have not yet developed any well-defined pattern of vocational interests. They may indicate a number of equally strong tested interests, or they may not show any strong vocational interests at all. While there is considerable advantage in giving vocational information early so as to permit the student to plan his course work around his vocational objectives, still caution should be exercised to avoid forcing a choice on a student before he is ready. The tested interest pattern of an individual may change completely between the ages of fourteen and twenty-four. There is some question as to the advisability of locating the course so early in the secondary school program. A course in vocations can give the student information which will help him make a choice later, and it can call attention to the future problem of making a vocational choice. It can relate schoolwork to the demands of life after school.

Many students are unable to continue their education after they leave high school. The only vocational training they will get must be given there. If these students show a decided interest, then the school can serve them best by giving them vocational training.

Occupational Library. An occupational library may be maintained to help the student find out about industries, professions, and colleges. Publications of the United States Office of Education, the National Education Association, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, National Youth Administration, Science Research Associates, state departments of education, and universities are among the many sources of materials which would be suitable for use in an occupational library. College catalogues, annuals, and newspapers should also be available in a high school library. Films, projected slides, radio programs, and dramatizations are among the devices which can be used to help students get acquainted with the nature of occupations and their opportunities outside of the school.

Go-to-college Orientation. If the student waits until he reaches college to be oriented, he has a very short time in which to make an adjustment. He has already limited some of his choices by choosing a college, and he is past the stage where much of the available information can be of help to him. Get-ready-for-college programs are already operating for senior students in some high schools (195:233*ff.*; 176:791*ff.*). High school teachers can give talks, lead discussions, and answer questions about the unfamiliar aspects of college life. Books, pamphlets, college catalogues, magazine articles, and college newspapers are among the materials which could be helpful (129; 121).

The Strong Vocational Interest Blank or a similar instrument would be helpful to the student who is choosing a college, as the choice of a college would be influenced by the choice of a vocation. This part of the orientation program, as other segments, should be accompanied by counseling.

The use of intelligence test results and other indications of scholastic competency would also be helpful. A study of the percentage of able high school graduates who attend college suggests that at least half of the students who would do well in college do not attend an institution of higher learning (169:405*ff.*). If high school counselors do not take responsibility for helping able students get to college, there is no certainty that it will be done. There is also the problem of placing scholarships where they will do the most good and of informing students of opportunities for scholarships.

Orienting College Freshmen

Current Practices. The practice of setting aside several days for testing new students and introducing them to the college is common among liberal arts colleges and universities, according to a study made in 1946 by Robert B. Kamm (102) of the Iowa State College faculty. He queried 155 colleges and universities accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and received replies from 75 per cent of that number.

All publicly controlled institutions who replied stated that they had administered an orientation program the previous fall and planned one for the following fall. Only 4 to 5 per cent of all other colleges had no previous program, and all planned an orientation schedule including testing for the following fall. Almost all planned to include social activities, group conferences, and lectures by representatives of the administrative staff, faculty, and students. From 55 to 80 per cent had arranged for students to tour the campus. Religious activities were included by 66 to 84 per cent. Almost all colleges expected to use faculty members as counselors. From 54 to 83 per cent also employed professionally trained counselors. Some

used upperclassmen as counselors. Some programs included courses in how to study, campus life, and other subjects.

Bookman (30:163ff.) also made a study of orientation practices in colleges of from 1,000 to 3,000 students. Among 188 replies, 45 colleges indicated that they had no orientation program. She found that 143 colleges used an intelligence test (usually the American Council on Education Psychological Examination) and an English test. Except for these common characteristics, the program varied considerably. Counseling was used by 130 out of 143 colleges during freshman week and in 124 during the entire freshman year. Administrative events necessary to registration were included in all 143 colleges.

From one to seven days were devoted to orientation in 134 colleges and universities prior to the formal opening of school. The average time spent was four days. Those who gave more time to the program included more attention to social adjustment.

Faculty members assisted with counseling in all 143 schools. Some schools made counseling compulsory, and some left counseling contacts to the volition of the students. From one to twenty counseling contacts were scheduled for freshmen with their advisers as part of the various college programs. Some schools reported that they used upperclassmen in the counseling program.

Counselors used intelligence test scores to assist them in guiding students. English test scores were used in 54 colleges for counseling, in 32 for sectioning, and in 19 for remediation. Other tests were used for placement in the curriculum by colleges with highly selective student bodies.

Personality tests were given to all freshmen in only 29 schools. Sixteen schools used information blanks as a part of their test batteries.

A required course in orientation was given by 61 colleges. Twelve others gave a series of required lectures. Twelve others gave a course into which students were steered. From one to four hours' credit was given in 49 colleges. Twenty-two gave no credit for the course. Sixty-one gave the adjustment-to-college type of course. Twelve used adjustment to the social and intellectual world of today as a theme. One-half or more courses included such subjects as how to study, college life, recreation and extraclass activities, social development, vocations, use of library, and personality development.

Bookman consulted 34 authorities on orientation. Among their recommendations are: the testing program should be adapted to the needs of the college; the test results should be interpreted by trained counselors (if faculty members counsel, they should be given training in test interpretation); orientation days should be set aside before classes begin for acquainting the student with the school and the school with the student;

counseling should be available *before* registration and throughout the year (special mention was made of the necessity for cooperation between faculty counselors and the personnel staff).

Bookman made the following additional recommendations: during freshman week, the counselors should have time to become acquainted with their counselees in social groups and in individual conferences not entirely devoted to registration procedure; faculty members should be given credit on their teaching loads for counseling; freshman week should allow time enough for the freshmen to make friends with upper-class students, faculty, and each other; orientation should be a continuing process.

The authors have the following recommendation to make with regard to orientation processes: orientation should be the beginning of a friendly relationship between the new student and his faculty adviser; if the relationship does not materialize, the student should be shifted to other advisers until a satisfactory relationship is established.

Sample Schedule. The following is an example of an orientation schedule for about 1,000 college freshmen.

Freshman Orientation Program

First Day

8:00 A.M.	Address: "Welcome to Your College," president of college
8:30 A.M.	Address: "What Is Orientation?" chairman of orientation committee
8:50 A.M.	Vocational interest test
10:00 A.M.	Break: get your name tag, meet your upper-class hostess or host
10:45 A.M.	English placement theme
12:00 noon	
1:15 P.M.	English placement test
2:45 P.M.	Address: "Your Faculty Adviser," chairman of freshman advisers
3:05 P.M.	Visit your faculty adviser in room _____ Hall _____
	Your upper-class hostess will introduce you to your adviser
	Your name will be posted on the bulletin board with the name of your adviser and his other advisees
4:30 P.M.	Recreation and relaxation: baseball, volley ball, swimming, tennis, auditions for Freshman talent show
8:00 P.M.	Upper-class talent show

Second Day

8:00 A.M.	Physical science aptitude test for those students enrolling in scientific and technical curricula
9:00 A.M.	Mathematics placement test for those enrolling in all curricula which require mathematics as a major subject
10:00 A.M.	Personality test
11:00 A.M.	Football and basketball movies
12:00 noon	

1:15 P.M. Individual record form (personal history or self-inventory)
2:00 P.M. Social science test
3:30 P.M. Swimming
8:00 P.M. Dance sponsored by student council (upper-class hosts and hostesses)

Third Day

8:00 A.M. Reading test
8:45 A.M. Scholastic aptitude test
10:00 A.M. Visit activity booths (names beginning with A–K); tour campus (names beginning L–Z) with your upper-class host or hostess
12:00 noon
1:15 P.M. Music aptitude test for those enrolling in music
2:15 P.M. Visit activity booths (names beginning with L–Z); tour campus (names beginning A–K) with your upper-class host or hostess
3:30 P.M. Assembly: Meet your deans
4:00 P.M. Student government and activities explained, president of student council; students fill out activities preference cards (including interest in student government)
7:00 P.M. Watermelon feed for all men, sponsored by YMCA
7:00 P.M. Watermelon feed for all women, sponsored by YWCA

Fourth Day

8:00 A.M. (Cumulative record folders distributed to advisers)
Freshmen confer with advisers on suitable curriculum and enroll

Fifth Day

7:00 P.M. Freshman talent show

Sunday

Local church day

First Week of School

Health department assembly: Health service explained
Physical examinations start

End of First Five Weeks

Confer with adviser on classwork, social adjustment, tentative goals, any subject which concerns the freshman

End of First Nine Weeks

Appointment with adviser for evaluating progress and defining goals

End of Sixteen Weeks

Confer with adviser on program and enroll for second semester

Advance Preparation. Analysis of the sample program suggests that much advance preparation is necessary. The dates must be set, rooms en-

gaged, transcripts copied, arrangements made with speakers, advisers, etc. Work on the fall freshman orientation program begins in April when the orientation committee meets. The clerical staff begins preparing the freshman folders in May or June. The name of each freshman is typed on his folder, in which is recorded his high school record and, later, his test results and other personal data.

A supply of tests, pencils, and other materials must be secured. If the tests are machine-scored, electrographic pencils must be provided. If the tests are given, as they often are, in large auditoriums or gymnasiums, lap boards must be provided.

Upperclassmen to serve as proctors, guides, and hosts and hostesses must be recruited and trained. Students should sit on the orientation committee, or student committees should be asked to make recommendations regarding orientation. They may have valuable suggestions to make regarding all processes and are especially helpful in planning entertainment and recreation for the new students. Four hundred upperclassmen assisted in freshman orientation at Wisconsin University in 1939, and forty student committees assisted in planning the seven-day acquaintance period (186:389ff.). Student helpers can often be secured from such organizations as Mortar Board, Blue Key Service Fraternity, Student Council, YMCA, YWCA, and other organizations.

Preregistration of Upperclassmen. The use of freshman records is greatly facilitated by advance registration of upperclassmen in the spring for the following fall. With all other enrollments out of the way, the faculty member with only eight or ten students to serve can give the necessary time and consideration to their needs and possibilities. Otherwise the faculty assigner is so rushed that he is unable to use the valuable data which have been collected. There is this added advantage: administrators can estimate the number of students in various curricula and arrange for classrooms, instructors, etc.

Clearing the Schedule. The expansion of the orientation program may make it necessary for many faculty members to return to the college at an earlier date than they were accustomed to. In order that no misunderstanding should arise, the time when they will be needed should be discussed with them.

The time of fraternity and sorority rushing was established in many colleges before a period of orientation for the entire student body was considered necessary. The time immediately before classes start has been traditionally theirs, but their activities are so distracting to the rushees and so disturbing to group morale that, if possible, rushing should be scheduled so as not to conflict with orientation. Unless advance arrangements are made it is almost impossible to keep rushees from missing all

except the required activities. Often, they are too tired and tense to give their full attention to testing and other required activities which are arranged by the college for their benefit. The conflicting program of activities interferes with efforts to build up solidarity of the group, since their attention and their loyalties are divided, and only part of the group is present for the social activities and discussions which do the most to unify the group. Another handicap is that some of the able upper-class members are too busy with rushing to help with orientation.

The program of orientation is a big-scale operation for the good of every member of the freshman class. The interests of small segments of the school population should be secondary to the good of the whole student body. The question should be presented to the students and their cooperation secured if possible. Since the question concerns the good of the whole student body, independent students might be asked to express their opinions as well as Greek-letter members. Delaying rushing until the beginning of the sophomore year is probably the best solution. Summer rushing does not offer a satisfactory solution of all the orientation problems, because the pledges are less interested in orientation than in their new Greek connections. They are already committed to the small group and less able to give loyalty to the whole group.

Late-summer rushing is not satisfactory to college boys because many of them have summer jobs which they want to keep until school starts. The expense is greater because there is a short period after rushing is closed and before school starts. Some upperclassmen would go home and others would stay and pay board. However, this plan may be more acceptable to them than delayed rushing. Although early rushing is less satisfactory to the student personnel staff and faculty, they would not want to violate their own democratic principles and force the most desirable plan on the Greeks. Probably, if the students do not support delayed rushing, they would rush quietly anyway. They cannot be expected to cooperate unless their opinions are respected and they have a voice in the decision.

Orientation Booklet. In addition to the college handbook which has already been described, an advance copy of the orientation schedule should be sent to each freshman. The objectives of orientation days may be briefly explained, along with aspects of the program which the faculty wish to emphasize. The following remarks [5] will show what might be included.

What Is Orientation?

The change from high school to college is a major step in your life—one toward adulthood and maturity. The basic purpose of orientation is to enable you to make this change as quickly and easily as possible.

[5] Material sent to prospective freshmen, Kansas State College, 1950.

Just as we wish you to get acquainted with us, we want to get to know you. We have found that we can be of best service to you if we can furnish you with objective information about yourself so that you can make more realistic choices of goals and activities here at college and in later life. To do this, we have a testing program which is required of all entering freshmen. Although you must take these tests before you can enroll, the results will *not* be used to exclude you from admission.

Some of these tests can be used to help you choose courses or a vocation which you will like and in which you can succeed. Some can help you find out more about your own emotions and how well you get along with other people.

You will take an English Test to find out what freshman English course is best for you. (See General Catalogue.)

College life is not all classes. Orientation, therefore, includes orientation to the social life of the College as well. The program is arranged so that you will have a chance to become acquainted with some upper classmen who can give you the "inside information" on the customs and traditions of the College, and with the religious and social organizations of town and the campus. We hope you take full advantage of this phase of the program so that you will make yourself a true member of the student body—active in scholastic and social activities.

Instructions for registration should also be included in the booklet: where to pay fees and how much, where to go first, what forms the student will fill out, etc.

Mechanics of Arrangements. Experience in operating the orientation schedule points up the spots where efficiency can be improved. For example, the Strong Vocational Interest Blank is run through the scoring machine 14 times for group ratings. About 400 sheets can be run through in an hour. If there are 1,200 freshmen, it will take three hours to put them through once and a total of fifty-two hours to complete scoring for groups. Therefore it will be an advantage to administer the Strong Blank early in the week. Thereafter, scoring can be sandwiched in between other duties and the work completed in time to distribute scores to advisers before enrollment. If achievement or intelligence tests are given, they will probably be timed. The very first test is often missed by some students. If it is a timed test, it is difficult to arrange to make it up. It requires a psychometrist and special conditions. Such extra arrangements make trouble for the staff. It is impossible to duplicate the original conditions, and comparison with other scores is dubious. The Strong test, however, is not timed and can be given under less formal conditions.

If an English placement test is used, it is advantageous to give it early in the week, in order that scores may be sent the English department in time for them to calculate how many students will be in elementary and advanced classes and plan for classrooms and teachers. If the freshmen are required to write themes as a part of the English placement test, the

time for the theme should be provided as early as possible in the schedule, because marking themes takes a long time.

If research is being done on the data collected during orientation days, special arrangements may be necessary. Many colleges use local norms for calculating percentile rankings on test scores in order that an individual's score can be compared with those of his classmates. If local norms are to be established, arrangements must be made in advance for someone to do the statistical work. Arrangements should be made for extra clerical help during test scoring and recording of data.

Orientation Classes. Orientation classes differ widely in various colleges. Averett College in Danville, Virginia, uses one daily assembly hour each week for a required course in orientation (89:390*ff.*). How to study is emphasized. The study of each subject is discussed separately. The use of the library is explained. Reading, underlining, taking notes, setting immediate and long-term goals, the connection of subject matter with everyday life, spaced study, rules for thinking, tabulating and classifying information, reviewing, and taking tests are among the topics included.

The orientation course in Union Junior College at Cranford, New Jersey, raises the question, "What does the freshman expect of the college and what does the college expect of him?" Aims of the course include helping the student to see the faculty's viewpoint and helping the faculty to see the students' viewpoints. MacKay and Iverson (125:195*ff.*) believe that the course should acquaint the student with the necessary skills and techniques to do successful college work, provide the opportunity to experience at least once a proved successful method of study, and give the student a sense of security by offering a number of immediately applicable proved methods rather than confuse him with inspirational appeal.

They stress the importance of student participation. They describe the device of having students from the same class work in pairs, each making an examination for his partner. Each took the examination made by his partner and wrote a criticism of it. One girl reported she had anticipated every question in a botany quiz while preparing a test in it for her partner. The authors believe that this experience helps the student to see the faculty point of view.

Each student was asked to evaluate one instructor for a week, indicating, among other items, whether his lectures followed a plan, whether he used illustrations and examples, etc. This project, the authors stated, helped the faculty to get the student viewpoint.

Faculty members and upperclassmen who were doing successful work were asked to meet with the freshmen. The class was surprised to hear one senior say that English composition is the most important course for

engineering students. He showed a big stack of laboratory reports. A new respect was born for English, the authors report.

Social skills are developed through a course in social orientation at Indiana State Teachers College, according to Agnes Brady (32:233*ff*.). Living with others, introductions, conversation, correct letter writing, table manners, dating and dancing, travel and conduct in public places, and personal appearance and grooming are among the items discussed. One outcome was an increase in the requests for personal counseling.

Self-realization was one of the objectives of the orientation course established in the general college of the University of Minnesota in 1938 (231:233*ff*.). The first quarter of work was concerned with the need of the students to understand themselves and to evaluate their abilities correctly.

Personal counseling was available to the students, concurrently with the classwork, and the instructor conferred with the counselors. The course included a study of the mature personality, measures of individual differences, and the relationship between the subject matter and student problems. This unit of work was followed by a study of activities and recreation: influence of environmental factors, the college recreational facilities, and actual participation by the students in activities. The final quarter of work was entitled "Philosophy of Life" and was devoted to problems that face students: a choice of values, parental responsibility, sexual morality, tolerance, civil liberties, property rights, and the like. Films, news items, and life situations were used to stimulate discussion. Two hours of credit were given for the year's work.

A class in vocational orientation was offered in 1936 at the University of Minnesota, and in 1939 it became a part of a three-hour course which included three units: occupational choice; the world at work; and vocational laboratory (87:237*ff*.). Among the items of study were individual interest and ability patterns, how personality relates to achievement on the job, interrelation between workers, job-getting techniques, reasons for working, life goals, fatigue and monotony, job hazards, and the interdependence of industries and workers. The students made applications for jobs and discussed their experiences. Visiting speakers and films were used to stimulate discussions. Two written assignments were made, a vocational autobiography and a letter of application.

A similar course was offered at Stephens College in 1938 (273). Tests of interests, abilities, and personality were administered, and individual counseling followed the testing. The student compared her qualifications with the requirements of a selected occupation. Data about herself and about the occupation were presented in a term paper. One hour of credit was given.

A five-hour course in orientation was introduced in the College of Education of Ohio State University in 1938 (120:127ff.). Subject matter included such topics as the university offering, planning university life, work and study, the relation of school to the community, vocational information, and goals. The students spent six hours weekly on the course, two hours in lectures, two hours in testing, field trips, and similar activities, and two hours in small group conferences with their advisers. An adviser was assigned to each group of about 15 students. Advisers met weekly with the junior dean of the college and other student personnel officers. Substantial gains were noted among 600 first-quarter freshmen as compared with freshmen of the previous fall who were enrolled in a one-hour orientation course.

The subjects to be covered in an orientation course might be classified roughly into four units: (1) understanding oneself (testing, counseling, and psychology); (2) exploring the college offering and how to study; (3) learning about vocations and the world of work; (4) developing a feeling of responsibility for the good of the group and the community and an understanding of world problems. The student in such a course might be helped to set relatively realistic goals and make progress toward them; discover how the college can serve him best and how to use its resources and to recognize what the college expects of him; get information to help him make a vocational choice, learn something about the demands of a job, and the relationship between his chosen vocation and others; and begin to see the role of the individual in a democratic society.

One of the questions to arise in considering the advisability of an orientation course is, "What shall we do with all the other orientation activities and courses?" Scattered over the campuses are various one-hour, required, or noncredit courses, seminars, or lecture series, entitled "Orientation to Physical Education," "Orientation to Agriculture," "Orientation to the Milling Industry," and similar opportunities for students to learn about curricula and vocations. Some dormitories carry on a program of self-government and group discussions about how to study, the relationship of the dormitory to the student council and the rest of the college, etc. In some divisions of a given college there will be a big-sister or senior-counselor program or a counseling service directed by the assistant dean, while in other divisions of the same college no effort is made in this direction. Sororities, the YWCA, and other campus agencies have their own orientation projects.

It is no small problem to initiate an over-all program to serve every student without threatening the personal pride and security of the persons already operating their own orientation programs. There is some danger that a change in the program would be regarded as a criticism of the

existing order. And yet, the uncoordinated efforts of separate campus agencies leave a large number of students unprovided for. An over-all program plus the programs of various college divisions and agencies produce a duplication of efforts and could easily result in confusion for the student instead of facilitating adjustment. A multiplicity of orientation courses would take up inordinate amounts of time. A freshman enrolled in "Milling Industry" in the school of agriculture might find himself with a five-hour general orientation course, an hour section of orientation to the milling industry, a weekly meeting of an agriculture seminar, periodical conferences with his adviser, and regular dormitory house meetings, all intended to orient him. A coordinated program is obviously desirable.

Other problems arise when orientation is attempted without the help of trained personnel. A comprehensive program requires the cooperation of many faculty members, students, and administrators, but it is most effective when student personnel workers also participate.

Some of the resistance to coordinating the orientation program could be ameliorated by faculty discussions long before the course is actually offered. Attention could be called to the desirable outcomes of various existing programs, their methods described, and any duplication studied. The possibility of a general course could be explored: what its content should be, how organized, who should teach it, whether existing courses and programs could be incorporated into it, how duplication of effort could be avoided, what credit should be given, etc.

It is possible that an arrangement could be made to divide the class into groups according to specialized curricula for attention to orientation to home economics, education, agriculture, or whatever divisions would include the existing courses. This might be done during the study of vocations. The faculty members in charge of specialized orientation could then coordinate their efforts with those who are responsible for the general program.

A section of study on extra-class activities might be organized to incorporate the YWCA orientation program and those of other organizations. Those student personnel workers interested in coordinating the program should take care to listen to the opinions of faculty members already functioning in orientation programs, to show respect for their achievements, and to recognize when their suggestions are practical. Every precaution should be taken to avoid disparaging the sincere and productive efforts already made in this area.

The resistance of the faculty to change often appears to the enthusiastic student personnel worker who is introducing a new idea as hidebound obstinacy. The student personnel worker, on the other hand, would not want to give the impression of patronizing self-righteousness.

If, after thorough study, the faculty decides by majority vote that a coordinated course is practical and desirable, they should be represented on a committee to work out the details with members of the personnel staff. A tentative outline should be submitted to the faculty for suggestions and finally for a vote. The resulting course may not be a perfect specimen but it will work better than a slick blueprint forced on the resistant faculty by the student personnel worker.

Summary

Integration of the orientation program becomes possible when all relevant school and college resources are used, when existing programs are coordinated, and when faculty members are consulted before any major change in existing practices is made. The program described in this chapter would involve faculty members, administrators, students, and personnel workers. Communication would be established among them. Clinical data could be used to help the classroom teacher understand her student, and her observations would be available to the personnel worker. The proposed program makes use of testing, counseling, the classroom, group processes, recreation, student government, and extra-class activities. The orientation processes are the beginnings of student contact with his adviser, with the counseling bureau, with student leaders, and with almost every part of the personnel program. Orientation merges into the sustained student personnel services, advising, clinical counseling, and group activities so gradually that we cannot define where orientation ends and other personnel services begin.

CHAPTER 12 *Faculty Advising*

As has been mentioned earlier, the operation of a faculty advising program to supplement the clinical service of professional counselors multiplies the opportunities for personnel service to students. Few colleges or high schools have an adequate number of trained counselors to contact all students who would profit by counseling of one kind or another.

Many student problems do not require psychotherapy but can be handled capably by faculty members with the help of a trained personnel worker. Choice of vocation, curricula, extra-class activity, rooming house, or graduate school might very well be among the problems which a student would bring to his adviser. Any problems which seem to require more time or skill than a faculty member feels able to give, he could refer to professionally trained counselors, providing they are available.

Faculty advisers at the University of Illinois, according to Gilbert,[1] are not arbitrarily limited to working with any given type of student problem. "For example, a faculty counselor continues with the client even if fairly serious emotional problems are disclosed." If, in his judgment, the problems are so complicated and severe as to require professional counseling, the faculty adviser turns over the case completely to the professional counselor.

Warters (252:194ff.) points out that only a few high schools provide specialists to assist either students or teachers with adjustment problems. This statement suggests that in many cases the high school faculty adviser is the only help available to maladjusted students.

Advantages

Integration. The operation of a faculty advising program facilitates the coordination of all aspects of the school program toward educational goals

[1] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 301ff.

and the integration of student personnel services into the all-school program. Through contacts between personnel workers and faculty members, each becomes acquainted with the services, aims, and problems of the other and better able to provide a balanced program for satisfying the needs of the students.

Gilbert [2] says, "The real relationship between teaching and counseling is recognized practically by including faculty members in the counseling organization."

Respect for each other is implied when the faculty members and the student personnel workers cooperate in their efforts toward mutual goals.

Including faculty advisers in the student personnel program encourages faculty acceptance of the professional counseling services provided by specialists, according to Gilbert. [3]

By utilizing faculty counselors both the faculty members at large and the administrative officials are prevented from making the accusation of professional snobbery which might otherwise be well justified. The use of faculty counselors also encourages the development of the opinion among the students that a counseling service is not simply a service for emotionally disturbed students.

The student personnel point of view can be extended to the faculty member's contacts with individual students and with classes. The teacher who sees the individual as a mathematics student, an English student, or an engineering student may also come to regard him as a person with emotions, drives, motivation, and social needs. The advising program provides (in theory) that at least one faculty member will see each student as a personality.

The adviser's understanding of the human personality, interview techniques, and methods of group leadership can be improved through contacts with the student personnel staff and applied in his relationships with students. Feder [4] says, "Inculcation of numbers of the faculty with the personnel point of view will in the long run result in better instruction and a more vital institutional attitude." The personnel program should concern itself with inculcating the personnel point of view throughout the institution, according to the statement of a group of educators at the National Conference on Higher Education in 1949 (155).

Referral. Referral of students to professional counselors, psychometrists,

[2] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 301ff.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 302.

[4] Feder, Daniel D., "Selection and Training of Faculty Counselors," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 290.

and other personnel agencies is facilitated when the faculty member becomes acquainted with the nature of available services and their possibilities for helping students. Many who would profit by counseling would never reach the therapist by any other channel.

Use of Records. A well-organized faculty advising program makes it possible to use the results of tests and other data to help the student choose a suitable curriculum. Distributing them to faculty advisers permits a pre-enrollment contact for at least every new student and possibly for other students who need to review their choices.

Specialized Knowledge. The faculty adviser is likely to have information about his own field, a knowledge of job opportunities, and the nature of courses offered in his department which is not necessarily available to the professional counselor. The student may accept the faculty adviser as an educational specialist in his particular area and have confidence in his judgment regarding educational and vocational choices in that area.

Objectives

The objectives of the advisory program can be stated thus:

1. To ensure that every student will receive information concerning the offering of the school or college and aid in comparing his potentialities with the opportunities offered by the institution
2. To provide individual help for the student in understanding himself, defining his goals, and making progress toward them
3. To provide every student some association with faculty outside the classroom
4. To help the student to become self-directive
5. To increase understanding between student and faculty
6. To acquaint the faculty and students with personnel services available to them
7. To facilitate early identification of student problems
8. To encourage the referral of students who need clinical counseling
9. To enhance the faculty members' knowledge of the human personality, effective methods of group leadership, and the use of clinical test results and counseling processes

The American Council on Education publication, *Student Personnel Work in the Post War College* (10:25), contains this statement regarding the function of the faculty adviser: "From faculty registration advisers who did little more than approve the selection of courses, many colleges moved on to the designation of faculty advisers who were supposed to be the student's guide and friend."

Extent of Faculty Advising

A survey by Wrenn (277:269*ff.*) in the 1930's showed that over 70 per cent of the institutions contacted claimed to have a faculty advisory system. Responses to a survey made in 1947 of student personnel programs in 122 colleges and universities belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools reveal that all except one of these institutions include counseling by faculty members (103:91). Feder [5] says, "Today probably every college and university in the country makes such a claim." He points out that many are limited to assignment of students to courses and to registration problems. A survey by Haggerty and Brumbaugh (85:201*ff.*, 559*ff.*) in 1939 suggests the trend toward in-service training of faculty members who work with professional personnel staff. References to high school faculty advising programs are found in the writings of Froelich (76), Strang,[6] Allen (5:378*ff.*), Warters (252), and others. R. H. Eckelberry (60:106*ff.*), editor of the *Journal of Higher Education*, said in 1949, "Our greatest need in student personnel work is the improvement of the advisory system."

Relationship of the Faculty Adviser to the Student Personnel Staff

The foregoing comments suggest that the student personnel staff will furnish leadership for the student personnel program, giving the faculty adviser such help and information as he needs to carry on the work of advising. The student personnel staff also provides opportunity for the faculty adviser to develop and perfect counseling techniques and helps him to evaluate the effectiveness of his work. Information from the adviser can also be valuable to the student personnel worker.

The student personnel staff is presumably composed of specialists to whom the adviser can apply for help if he needs it. Warters (252:26) makes this statement: "There are personnel services to be performed by every staff member, but every staff member is not qualified to perform every service . . . certain services should be performed only by the teachers selected and trained for them; and certain services should be performed only by the specialists." This is essentially the point of view adopted by the Educational Policies Commission (157).

Gilbert [7] says:

[5] Feder, Daniel D., "Selection and Training of Faculty Counselors," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 288.

[6] Strang, Ruth, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947.

[7] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 301.

To make good counseling services available to all students who need them, it is necessary to have both professionally trained clinical counselors and adequately trained faculty and staff members. . . . The manifold references to the use of trained faculty counselors and the mounting interest manifested by institutions currently inaugurating counseling programs lends credence to the belief that the counseling pattern of the future will be that of a relatively small nucleus staff of technicians augmented by a considerably larger number of faculty counselors, specially chosen and trained.

Securing the Cooperation of the Faculty

The process of securing the cooperation of the faculty would be similar to that described in Chapter 11 on orientation, in which preliminary faculty meetings and study are described. The faculty advising program at Kansas State College, established in 1945, was preceded by several years of study by faculty committees. Information on the programs of other colleges was secured and the needs of the college were analyzed. Existing personnel services were defined. In 1944, a plan of organization based on various preceding committee reports was submitted to the faculty by a subcommittee of the Postwar Planning Committee on Educational Adjustments.

Their recommendations included: the centralization of all counseling and testing information in a student personnel record center; coordination of faculty advising of students; preregistration testing for use in assignment and classification of students; individual testing and counseling for those students who desire and need additional assistance; and remedial services. The committee also recommended the creation of a board of counselors with the director of student personnel as chairman, and representation from each school of the college and the offices of the dean of women and men's adviser. The committee recognized the counseling and testing services already being performed at the college but noted that the services were not uniform for all students and were restricted in number and scope by limited time, facilities, and objective data.

The plan was put into operation in 1945 approximately as it was suggested by the committee, and a director of student personnel was employed. Candidates for the office were invited to speak before the faculty and to confer with them on the best methods of establishing the program. Faculty advisers were chosen, and the director of student personnel met with them to discuss test interpretation and counseling procedures. Orientation activities were planned to include preregistration testing. Cumulative records were prepared for each freshman and sent to his adviser. Advising contacts were scheduled. The board of counselors was created to advise the director of student personnel and to serve as a link between the faculty and the student personnel staff. A faculty committee on orien-

tation was also appointed. Upper-class students were recruited and trained to serve as guides, hosts, and hostesses to new students during orientation. Individual counseling and testing by professional counselors were made available to students who desired them.

Remedial reading classes were offered in the fall of 1946 and each succeeding school term. A series of how-to-study lectures were given for freshmen in the fall of 1945 following the opening of the school year and were repeated in the fall of 1946. In 1947 and 1948, they were given after the low-grade slips were sent at the end of the first five weeks.

A meeting of faculty advisers was held in the spring of 1946 to evaluate the advising program. A suggestion was made by a group of advisers that the number of fall advising meetings be increased and that special attention be given to new advisers. A number of meetings were held the following fall for new advisers and for others who wished to attend. Faculty advisers participated actively in the presentation of case histories and case analyses. A *Handbook for Faculty Advisers* was prepared in 1946 by the director of the counseling bureau. It was revised in 1947 to treat problems of advisers as discussed in their meetings and to review achievements of advisers. Additions were made to the handbook in 1949 and 1950.

In the fall of 1949, an expanded program of seminars for faculty advisers was initiated and 100 faculty advisers enrolled voluntarily. The seminars were continued the following year with 70 enrolled, about half of whom were newly appointed advisers.

The aid of the faculty was enlisted in initiating an advising program in a small high school (272). The high school superintendent began by making a few case studies himself, which he presented for consideration by the faculty. After discussion, he asked if they would care to contribute anecdotes to add to each case folder. From this small beginning, the faculty became interested and cooperated in an expanding program of advising and other student personnel services.

Support for the program is increased if the faculty member finds that it is doing something for him, helping to solve discipline problems, reduce changes from one curriculum to another, improve students' reading or study habits, etc. Research indicating such results in the local situation should be furnished to the faculty member by the student personnel worker.

Even more favorable attitudes develop if the faculty member discovers for himself that the student personnel services can help him. At the risk of being obvious, may the authors point out that the laws of learning operate with faculty members as well as with students. Let us illustrate. An academic dean of a state scientific technical school decided he would

find out for himself whether there was anything to the standardized testing program. He made a study and announced with pride (and some astonishment) that achievement in his school could be predicted on the basis of the tests. Having discovered this significant fact for himself, *he believed it.* He had learned it only after personal exploration, and it was as new to him as if he had not heard it before from authorities in the field.

Studying Local Needs. If the personnel system is to be an integral part of the college or high school program, it must grow out of the needs of the school. Many an enthusiastic administrator has returned from summer school or an inspiring meeting determined to establish a personnel program exactly like the one he has just learned about.

It is a mistake to try to impose a ready-made plan on any school. While certain principles and structural elements are common to all systems, the program must be adapted to the local situation.

Problems of dropouts, failures, marginal achievers, and behavior deviations may be uncovered by faculty committees assigned to study the needs of the school. These problems are common to educational institutions.

A study of one Middle Western college revealed that an average of only 37 per cent of the freshmen completed a four-year degree. Twenty-six per cent of all its students were not making progress toward a degree. Less than half of this number could blame low ability for this lag in progress.

Evidences of unrest and dissatisfaction among the students may help to convince the academic staff that a personnel program is desirable. Social explosions, such as the declaration of an illegal holiday, mob invasion of the classroom, barricading the campus entrances, and destruction of property, may indicate a need for a coordinated program.

The professional personnel worker may feel impatient with all this ceremony, but he will found his program on a firm base if he will take the time to let the faculty inform itself and develop support. Learning cannot be hurried, and this is a learning situation. Comenius, seventeenth-century educator, spoke with wisdom when he said, "Nature does not hurry itself, but proceeds slowly. Let nothing be done against the grain."

Resistance to Program. While the program is in the beginning stages, it is most important that the administrator or student personnel worker be aware of the attitudes of the faculty toward the program. Having assisted in planning and making decisions, they may be assumed to be committed to support it, but any change or innovation produces resistance. Previous comments on resistance and emotions as they affect interpersonal relations apply here. Torrance (235) gives an example of unconscious resistance.

For example, as an army private in basic training, I was strongly motivated to march in step. I think I really wanted to learn to keep in step as much as I

have wanted to learn anything. There was no lack of external nor internal motivation. There was no negativism; I tried every device anyone suggested and practiced during spare moments. Still I was always out of step. It was not until months later in a technical school with men of backgrounds of interests and experiences similar to my own that I "suddenly" learned to keep in step. Neither lack of motivation nor negativism would seem to describe what had happened to me. Unconscious resistance due to the way I had learned to define myself would seem to be a more adequate way of describing the phenomenon.

Every college teacher and college counselor has known many college students who wanted very much to learn, but yet failed to learn, not because of inability to learn or inadequate time for study or some of the other reasons commonly given to academic failure. Traditionally, the educator has looked upon resistance moralistically, as something which must be broken like obstinacy, as a kind of evil spirit which must be exorcised by stern discipline, flogging, and other means of punishment. Such a concept has seemed to lead inevitably into a blind alley. It is to the fields of psychotherapy and group dynamics that one must go in order to find more helpful concepts.

Fritz Redl (183:307*ff.*) believes that

. . . clinical resistance is just a special edition of a much larger area of phenomena, namely, the total area of "resistance to change." It seems reasonable to expect that some of the experiences from the clinical field, with proper cautions and modifications, will become useful wherever we approach individuals or groups with the purpose of change in mind. Thus, the analysis of resistance should have an important place in education, teaching, leadership training, attempts to change the performance of management and labor, as well as in attempts to combat prejudice, long ingrained habits of autocratic submission, problems of group-rut formation under the impact of bureaucratic pressure, and many more.

The involvement of the average faculty member in a personnel program may call for his acceptance of concepts which are inconsistent with well-established beliefs about himself and his role in education. He cannot accept them until he has participated actively in thinking through the program and helping to make decisions. If he cannot voice his opinions, the next best experience is to hear them voiced by someone with whom he is identified. Learning takes place when the learner interprets the new concept in relation to himself.

Lecky (113) conceives of resistance as a potentially constructive force, interpreting it as a desire to maintain a consistent personality. If a student resists learning a certain type of material, it is because from his point of view it would be inconsistent for him to learn it. It is only when his self-conception changes that his attitude toward the material will change.

Thus, resistance might be regarded as a defense against personality dis-

organization or reorganization. In this context, the leadership of faculty members toward an understanding of personnel methods and services assumes the aspects of a learning situation, involving perhaps more than the usual number of complexities. Understanding of self as it affects accepting unfamiliar concepts and methods is perhaps more difficult for adults than for adolescents, whose self-portraits are still in the process of change.

Charles Kettering (108), director of General Motors Corporation, says whenever he hears a speaker propose a change in the traditional method of handling a situation he can write the committee's adverse report without hearing the rest of the meeting. People are suspicious of change. It sometimes appears that educators are even more conservative and rigid than the general population. Nathaniel Cantor (38:1ff.) includes in his book, *Dynamics of Learning*, a chapter on "Education: The Handmaid to Reaction." The pioneering personnel worker can expect to hear these statements, firmly reiterated, "We have never done this before," or "We have been doing it *this* way for thirty years," with a finality of tone which is supposed to close the subject.

The new program may appear to threaten the status and security of administrators and people who have worked previously in testing, voluntary advising, registration, and admission. Those faculty members who are responsible for making decisions regarding discipline, student affairs, enrollment, and the like may feel that their authority is being usurped. Even faculty members who are dissatisfied with existing methods of enrollment, assignment, etc., may question whether a change will mean improvement. Some may feel that the proposed program is a reflection on previous efforts.

The student personnel worker is obligated by his philosophy to show respect for past achievements and for the ideas of those with whom he disagrees as well as for opinions which coincide with his own.

The necessity for mutual respect is emphasized by Shank: [8]

Many able and interested teachers have already been antagonized by our verbiage and our too pat self-assurance. In desperately seeking to build professional standards, we may permanently undermine the basic support of our work. If we fall into the easy error of our brothers in the medical profession of setting up a cabal which excludes all those who do not carry insignia of our high art, then our work will surely fail.

I suggest that we must be prepared now to work out a sound basic relationship in which we, with considerable humility, recognize that the teacher and not the specialized personnel officer has more frequent and, in many cases more meaningful contacts with students than we can ever hope to achieve.

[8] Shank, Donald J., "Some Questions about Faculty Counseling," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 310.

He says, however, that personnel workers, as specialists, must be prepared to give logical and defensible answers to such questions as arise in planning and executing the program.

Defining Feeling. If hostility is openly expressed, the discussion leader may be able to handle it effectively by defining the feelings of the speaker. The leader can say, "You feel angry (resentful, dubious)." If the feeling is correctly defined, the obstructionist often capitulates. He feels understood and his emotion is modified so that reasoning can take place. The following incident will illustrate the use of the technique.

During a discussion of personnel records, a college registrar objected to the proposal that he report all classroom grades to the counseling bureau for recording in the individual permanent record folders. The sentiment in the group was in favor of the idea. He made a violent objection. The group leader said for him, "You feel that the group is about to make a decision without considering your point of view, and this makes you angry." The registrar continued to explain his objection. The leader continued, "You feel that none of us knows the difficulties involved in the proposal and the hardships it might create for your limited staff." Another comment from the registrar elicited this reply from the leader, "You think the group is usurping authority which really belongs to you." The following day the registrar withdrew his objection to the proposal.

Verbalizing an emotion helps the speaker to free himself from it. Public discussion of opposition is better than keeping it underground. (The democratically led group often takes care of vigorous opposition without any action on the part of the leader other than that of a competent chairman.)

Administrative Support. The support of department heads is very important to the success of the program. If they feel that the service is unimportant or that it interferes with teaching duties or research, these views will be reflected in the attitudes of their staffs. Personal interviews between student personnel workers and department heads might prevent this situation from developing. The student personnel worker should endeavor in such an interview to find out something about the work of the department and how the department head believes the student personnel program can serve the department as well as to explain the role of the faculty adviser. Personal interviews, although time-consuming, can be more effective than meetings in securing support for the program.

The administrator can contribute immensely to the success of the student personnel program by arranging for the schedule to include faculty discussions on the use of test results, counseling techniques, and group dynamics and for regular meetings of advisers with advisees. Open interest in the program is favorable to its success. Many faculty members get their cues from the attitude of the administrator.

Financial support is necessary for the success of the program. This is an administrative responsibility. Research is a necessary part of the student personnel system, for evaluation and other purposes. Funds should be provided for research workers and supplies.

Compensation for Faculty Advisers. It is possible to carry on an advising program without extra compensation for the extra load. Faculty members have been giving students individual attention for many years with few rewards except the satisfaction they feel in watching their protégés grow and develop. However, it seems only just that the work of advising and the time spent in in-service education be recognized by additional pay, adjustment of teaching load, advancement in rank, or other means.

A survey of practices in a number of institutions (156) disclosed that reduction of teaching load, bonuses, and extra pay were employed. Few reported no compensation and those were predominantly institutions where the term "counseling" was used to mean registration advising only.

A plan to relieve faculty advisers of approximately one-quarter of their teaching duties was adopted in 1947 in the Liberal Arts College at the University of Iowa (159). If department heads approved of a staff member's serving as a special counselor and the staff member was willing to serve, the department was allowed from $720 to $900 for an extra graduate assistant or other suitable person to perform departmental duties which would otherwise have been carried out by the selected staff member. The faculty-counselor received roughly one-fourth of his salary from the budget of the dean of student personnel services.

Grinnell College (Grinnell, Iowa) initiated a faculty advising program in 1941 and offered a bonus of $100 a year to faculty advisers.

Illinois University provides additional remuneration and reduction of teaching load for faculty counselors, or if they choose, counselors may perform their duties on an overtime basis and receive greater remuneration.[9] For counseling work the staff members are administratively and budgetarily responsible to the student personnel bureau.

Of the faculty adviser's load Shank[10] says:

There is no obvious answer, of course, . . . sound practical advice is needed. My conclusions, which are I acknowledge, rule of thumb, run something like this. The faculty member who normally teaches fifteen hours might be expected to have his teaching load reduced to twelve hours if he is asked to counsel with

[9] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 301*ff.*

[10] Shank, Donald J., "Some Questions about Faculty Counseling," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 310.

twenty-five or thirty students. This might be assumed to provide a minimum of six to eight hours of counseling time per week.

Bergstresser [11] suggests "adequate adjustment of teaching loads to enable faculty counselors to keep a regular schedule of office hours throughout the week with enough hours scheduled to give all students a fair chance to see their counselors when they feel the need of help."

To the question, "Should faculty counselors or advisers be given any specified compensation for their counseling work, and should there be official recognition of excellent performance of counseling functions as one of the criteria for salary increase and promotion in faculty rank?" he answers:

My reply to this double-barreled question would be "yes, yes." To elaborate briefly, I would recommend (1) that those selected as faculty counselors be relieved of from one quarter to one half of their teaching loads; (2) that their pay for the counseling part of their work be a stipulated amount paid from a special budget set up to cover the costs of this counseling; and (3) that faculty and administrative sanction be given publicly and in definite terms, to the policy of recognizing excellent service in counseling on a par with excellence in teaching and research in granting salary increases and promotion in rank. If faculty counseling is as important as everyone, even presidents, say it is, why not find out what it costs to do a good job by proper cost accounting and budgeting? And why not claim for successful counseling the same material rewards of good pay and increased status that are given for successful teaching and research?

Feder [12] includes among fundamental assumptions underlying the in-service training for faculty counselors:

The faculty counselors will be given relief from part of their teaching load or extra compensation as recognition by the institution of the value of their efforts.

The faculty counselors will be given recognition for their effectiveness as counselors, as well as for teaching effectiveness, research and writing, when promotions in rank and salary are being considered.

Other Kinds of Recognition for the Adviser. Encouragement and recognition for advisers who are doing good work should be given by the members of the student personnel staff who exercise leadership in the program. Examples of good work can be presented in meetings, reports, and handbooks to illustrate the function of the faculty adviser. Favorable comments of students should be passed on to the adviser.

Progress in the advising program, as well as other aspects of the student personnel program, should be scientifically evaluated. Progress reports

[11] Bergstresser, John L., in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 316.
[12] Feder, Daniel D., "Selection and Training of Faculty Counselors," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 290.

should be sent to the advisers themselves as well as to the administration. Evaluation shows the workers how well they have done and how they can do better. It justifies the program and helps to maintain interest among the workers. Opinion polls, reports on failing students, discipline cases, referrals, number of advising contacts are among the types of information which help in evaluation. If evidence can be shown that advising helps to reduce discipline problems, failures, dropouts, changes from one curriculum to another, the adviser will feel recognized and rewarded.

Good work among the advisers should be individually recognized. A note from the head of the program pointing out an accurate diagnosis or an outstanding set of interview notes does more to keep the program going than a serious lecture on techniques. "The student personnel program should recognize the valuable contributions made by those members of the faculty who show active interest in the welfare of the students," according to a report of a group of distinguished educators at the National Conference on Higher Education in 1949 (155).

The status of the faculty adviser is acknowledged when the clinical counselor notifies him that his advisee has come in for counseling and when he makes a report on the results of counseling. If this type of communication is neglected, the adviser feels that his share of the work is regarded as unimportant.

Among Bergstresser's [13] suggestions for encouraging the faculty adviser are the following: provide a modest fund for the adviser to use in entertaining students informally in his home, in the student-union building, or elsewhere; encourage advisers to accept a reasonable number of invitations to visit residence halls and fraternities and sororities, to go on student outings and excursions, referee intramural games, attend student dances, and make other informal contacts; encourage them to sponsor at least one student organization (related to their own interests, if possible); give financial assistance to any faculty adviser who attends student personnel workshops, classes, conferences, or otherwise improves himself professionally; try to see that an attractive, comfortable office is provided for counseling interviews. Relative privacy and convenience of location would also be desirable characteristics of the adviser's office.

An excerpt from a handbook for faculty advisers [14] illustrates how attention can be called to their successes and achievements.

In addition to helping their advisees plan schedules, choose electives, and check prerequisites, advisers have been helpful in handling the resentment of students against various required courses. Some advisers report a successful approach to

[13] Bergstresser, John L., in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 316ff.
[14] Kansas State College Handbook for Faculty Advisers, 1947.

the problem was listening to complaints and recognizing the advisee's point of view. After relieving himself of his resentment, the student was willing to listen to the other side of the question. Special mention should be made of the efforts of the advisers in the School of Engineering and Architecture to "sell" English to some of their reluctant advisees.

Advisers found referral useful in instances where students wanted specialized information. Students with problems of vocational choice were frequently sent to persons with practical experience in the fields they were considering. Some advisers went further than academic and vocational advisement to help advisees find a place to eat or join a soft ball team or to entertain them at home.

A variety of situations confronted advisers—the girl who wanted a boy friend, the man about to become a father, the girl planning her first visit to her fiancé's parents, the boy who was wondering whether to join a fraternity. The girl or boy who is not invited to join a Greek letter organization sometimes presents a dilemma. The disappointment can be serious enough to interfere with academic achievement and other activities. Advisers record that they encourage the student to discuss his own feelings about belonging to such groups. Then, after learning the student's viewpoint the advisers have sometimes given him an impartial summary of advantages and disadvantages of membership.

No adviser is expected to "know all the answers" and solve all the problems of his advisees. Learning to handle his own problems is an important part of every person's education. The adviser's aim is to help the student help himself. However, an opportunity to talk those problems over with an adviser is of great value even when there is no apparent solution. An example of this type is the housing problem which was discussed in many cases. Although there is seldom anything which can be done about housing, many advisers apparently found that by listening to a discussion of this problem when it was uppermost in the mind of a student they were able to establish a favorable relationship for considering other matters.

Increasing use of test data was apparent. If test results were not available for the first interview, the adviser usually reported their absence as a handicap.

The value of test results in understanding the student's problems and in anticipating his difficulties is illustrated by one adviser's use of them. The advisee ranked at the 19th percentile on the Ohio Psychological Examination and from the sixth to the 14th percentile on the various achievement tests. The adviser commented in his first interview notes that the student might be expected to have difficulty. He made a point of finding out what subjects were most difficult for him and helping him to adjust his study schedule to allow the necessary time for difficult subjects. He arranged for the boy to drop in often so that he could help with any problems which might have arisen. In April the adviser's notes said this boy "appears to be getting along very well. He has adjusted to college and is much interested in his work. As his adviser I am particularly pleased with this outcome, for the outlook was not promising at the beginning of the school year." If this adviser had ignored the tests and their warning of potential difficulty, this student would probably have found his obstacles too forbidding to overcome.

Other advisers found test results useful in helping students who were not

achieving to capacity or students whose adjustment problems were acute. Interview notes show that advisers have encouraged their advisees to participate in extra-curricular activities, and later entries record progress in poise and ability to meet people.

That the limitations of tests are recognized by advisers is illustrated by interview notes as follows. ". . . her ability is probably higher than the tests indicate because. . . ." A list of reasons followed, and a suggestion that more tests would be needed to give a true picture of the student's ability. Another adviser described a student by saying "below average on aptitude tests but above average on achievement tests. He gives the impression of being an above average human being with common sense, maturity and capacity for work."

The examples mentioned in this report cover only a small part of the work done by the faculty advisers in helping freshmen students to adjust to college life but they seem sufficient to demonstrate the value of that work.

In-service Education

Faculty advisers often prefer to call their training sessions "advising seminars" or "advising workshops" instead of naming them "training" programs. The latter implies that the advisers are playing an inferior role.

In the initial stages of organization, the attitude of the leader might be: Would you like to meet to talk about problems of advising? When would you like to meet? How often? What would you like to talk about? What would you like to take up first?

Warters (252:199) suggests:

Teachers might participate more whole-heartedly were they permitted to study topics selected by them instead of topics assigned to them by directors. Better working relations might result were teachers permitted to organize their groups and select their group leaders instead of having to work in groups set and directed by external authority. When study groups are controlled and directed cooperatively by the members, teachers may not acquire so much factual knowledge as they would were the study material selected and organized by supervisors. But they are more likely to acquire deeper meanings, greater insight, and better understanding; and the new meanings are more likely to function immediately in improved personnel work.

Warters recommends that the meetings be scheduled in school time, if possible. When leaders are selected from among faculty members, personnel workers might be expected to participate as resource consultants.

A list of suggestions might be submitted by advisers and the group permitted to decide which to attack first and how to approach it. Most faculty members have already had personal contacts with students. Advisers might be asked to prepare a list of problems already encountered in advising students. Personnel staff members would provide the necessary references and materials.

With regard to subjects of interest to the Kansas State College advisers, Gordon (82) says:

All groups were interested in test analysis, in interpreting test data to the student, in broad teaching problems, in techniques of interviewing. . . . The concept of permissiveness, however, will lead to the introduction of seemingly unrelated material into group discussion. This extra content may be of great importance to the advisers. It will be noted that on several occasions activities on campus of concern to the whole faculty were discussed in the groups. In any program, therefore, the expectations of the planners should not be drawn too sharply. They should be more concerned with setting the stage for discussion than with providing food for thought. The advisers will see to it that pertinent material is discussed; they are interested and want their needs met. They are better able to judge, as a group, what is relevant, than is any pre-planner.

A permissive, accepting attitude on the part of the student personnel staff member who leads a group is as desirable in working with faculty advisers as with any other group. The advisers should have opportunities to express their ideas and preferences and to help plan the meetings. Occasions will arise where it is suitable for the leader to reflect feeling in the same manner which has already been described.

On this subject Gordon (82) says:

If the leader does not really have faith in the people with whom he works, if he does not really respect them and accept them, the group members will be sensitive to this and react in a negative fashion. Technics of leadership are not sufficient for good group work. A group leader must be the kind of person who engenders warmth, informality and good will. He must be a person who reflects, by his entire manner and actions, a basic respect for mankind. It has been demonstrated that groups will move forward in a constructive fashion, meeting their needs and gaining satisfaction from an experience when they feel that the leader fully believes in them and in their ability to set and achieve their own goals.

It may be said, then, that a basic respect for people is the first and foremost requirement for one who would attempt to utilize group procedures. In this case, faculty advisers must be considered as people. Too many personnel workers have respect for their students, but do not carry this over in their relationships with faculty. They do not trust their faculty, and this mistrust is conveyed to staff people. One cannot work with faculty, and expect cooperation, unless one believes in the ability of faculty to do effective personnel work.

A second major requirement is the ability to remain a flexible, growing individual. One must be willing to abandon one's own cherished goals for the goals of the group. This requires a belief that the group can almost always do more effective thinking than the individual.

The Kansas State College advisers who participated in the seminars were divided into small groups, each of which agreed upon a time to meet.

Some groups met once a week throughout the whole term; some met once a week for a semester; others met once every two weeks or weekly for short lengths of time. The group which met once a week appeared to make more gains in terms of content, attitude, satisfaction, and application of learning than other groups. The lapse of time between meetings in the case of groups which met less frequently appeared to retard the development of group feeling. However, it may be that those who met oftener and longer were more interested to begin with. Five of the original ten groups continued to meet after scheduled meetings were concluded.

Content. Subjects discussed by the Kansas State College advisers included: test interpretation (meaning of tests, test scores, application of test data), who should go to college, responsibilities of college toward students, general education, curriculum construction, entrance requirements, problem of the marginal student, role of the faculty adviser, problem of increasing student contacts, teaching methods, student responsibility taking, creating student interest, grading and testing, group procedures, rating of faculty by students, dynamics of student behavior. Role-playing and case analysis were used. Democratic group methods were discussed and practiced.

The formal seminars of the training program for faculty advisers at the University of Illinois require about 32 class hours, and the participants receive additional remuneration and release from teaching during this time.[15] Materials are borrowed from courses in beginning psychology, psychology of adjustment, abnormal psychology, occupational information, remedial reading, study habits, counseling and psychotherapy, and statistics as they relate to the interpretation and evaluation of tests. The program also includes practice in test interpretation, supervised counseling, and pseudo counseling. Training is continued in weekly staff meetings.

The first seminar is devoted to a discussion of the personnel point of view; the second to a discussion of basic psychological facts regarding the nature and causes of everyday behavior, adjustment to environmental conditions, symptoms of maladjustment; the third and fourth to individual differences and testing. Interpreting tests is discussed in subsequent sessions. Vocational information, various methods of counseling, reading skills, study habits, and problems of general motivation receive attention. The eleventh seminar includes a discussion of making referrals effectively, a subject which Gilbert[16] says has received far too little attention in the literature. The remaining ten hours of the training program are used for

[15] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 304.

[16] *Ibid.*, p. 306.

practice in reading and interpreting case folders, test data, and other clinical information and in practice counseling with advisers playing the roles of clients. For the latter practice, the pseudo client and his counselor make use of such typical problem situations as vocational choice with educational and emotional aspects, low motivation and poor study habits, resistance to parental pressure toward an unsuitable vocation. A plausible background, profile, and personal information questionnaire are worked up by the counselor who takes the role of the client.

Gilbert [17] says:

This procedure has a number of distinct advantages. The counseling interview may be interrupted at any point. The counselor may stop, back up, and start over again. The pseudo-client may make the counseling easy or difficult upon the suggestion of the seminar leader.

The person who plays the part of the client usually does it with disconcerting realism. If the counselor makes an obvious blunder, the pseudo-client ordinarily forces the issue by his responses until the counselor shows he is aware of the blunder and corrects it. *The pseudo-client himself gains an appreciation of students' problems and of the basic factors influencing human behavior in a manner which could not otherwise be achieved.*[18] The faculty members receiving this training report that the experience of playing the role of client is even more valuable than acting the counselor.

Gilbert believes that tape or wire recordings of the mock counseling interviews and playbacks of the recordings would be of value. Following this part of training, real student clients are assigned to the faculty counselors. Before and after each interview with the first three or four students, the faculty counselor has a conference with one of the eight full-time professionally trained counselors on the staff of the student personnel bureau and subsequently is invited to phone one of the full-time counselors any time he wishes or to arrange a conference with one. Weekly staff meetings continue the training and every other meeting is devoted to discussion of difficult counseling problems, demonstrations of counseling, or pseudo counseling with full-time staff members taking part. Other staff meetings are used for discussion of literature in the field, tests, and vocational information. Guest speakers are sometimes invited.

The procedures described for training advisers at the University of Illinois seem exceedingly thorough and inclusive. The writers feel that faculty members would be best able to internalize and make use of the information and experiences if these are introduced when the trainees desire

[17] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 307.

[18] Italics added.

them. Accepting ideas which will be new to many of the members may require a revision of former attitudes and beliefs. This process involves a sort of emotional reorganization before the individual can apply the facts and insights. Gilbert says, "While most faculty members seem able to think of all human behavior as having natural causes, it is occasionally amazing to discover how a person who is a scientist in another field believes that much non-adaptive behavior is caused by 'plain laziness,' 'meanness,' 'stubbornness,' or 'lack of will power.'" [19]

There are many arguments for an orderly and logical presentation of materials. Yet if the faculty members decide they would prefer to begin with a counseling demonstration, for example, the experience may suggest to them where information is lacking. Discussion may bring out where such information is available. When facts are presented, the faculty member's "flashback" to the preceding demonstration may make them more meaningful than if presented preceding the demonstration.

An experience with high school teachers who had asked for counselor training supports the hypothesis that maximum cooperation can be obtained under permissive leadership. The authors assisted with a training course in 1949 for high school teachers who had requested the course. Those tired, hungry, red-eyed teachers had wrestled with wriggling adolescents and breathed chalk dust for five hours before the class convened. Yet when the sixteenth two-hour session closed at six o'clock they lingered on to ask questions and continue the discussion.

Some counselors believe that the most meaningful kind of experience for an adviser is being counseled on his own test profile. This is probably true, providing it can be done by a counselor not directly connected with the training program (in order to avoid embarrassment and emotional involvement of the faculty adviser in connection with the sessions) and providing the faculty member wishes to go through the experience. Some would undoubtedly resist the idea. Counseling between people who are closely associated in work or social contacts is usually not profitable. There are difficult barriers to overcome. On the other hand, if the faculty member feels assured that his test information and responses in interview will be kept confidential, he will find it a very meaningful experience. Through understanding himself, he will gain insights into the problems and feelings of students.

For training faculty members to counsel, Bergstresser [20] would favor

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[19] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 307.

[20] Bergstresser, John L., in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 317ff.

(*a*) Emphasis upon the case method with staff discussions centered on specific problems and questions; (*b*) a mature and informal method of learning together, as a group of colleagues, not in terms of "the great expert telling the new boys"; and (*c*) provision of much of the in-service training through the intimate, friendly assistance that can be given to each faculty counselor by a supervisor who is qualified and who is on this job close to full time.

He includes among other suggestions, the development of a "keen awareness that the problem or question which the student first verbalizes in counseling is often not the real reason why he is seeking help" and the provision of "specific information about the special counseling and other personnel services available and when and how referrals should be made, plus personal acquaintance with the persons who direct these services."

Feder [21] suggests the following topics for the training of faculty counselors:

1. The personnel point of view
2. The nature of the student (including individual differences)
3. The nature of human abilities (including tests and other means of evaluating individual differences and the limitations of such instruments)
4. The interpretation of test scores
5. How to interview
6. How to record an interview (longhand or dictated notes following interview including facts, tone, and student's interpretation; he says no notes should be taken during interviews with students)
8. Study habit techniques
9. Vocational information
10. Utilization of immediate and community resources
11. Counseling techniques (he suggests the use of tape, wire, or wax recordings of actual counseling interviews)
12. Case analysis

The authors suggest that training in recognition of symptoms as Feder describes is a very important part of the process.

The Providence, Rhode Island, training program emphasized three areas of study: group-guidance methods, use of tests, and follow-up work. Practical personnel problems were introduced along with study (5:378*ff*.). The faculty advisers were organized into small groups.

Eckelberry (60:106*ff*.) would include acquaintance with the total offerings of the institution—services, curriculum, extra-class activities.

Strang (219:197) recommends the use of permanent cumulative records and case studies in the training of teachers for counseling.

The writers suggest that time for "griping" should be provided. One of

[21] Feder, Daniel D., "Selection and Training of Faculty Counselors," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 292*ff*.

the army slogans was, "If they're not gripin' there's something wrong." It might be modified thus, "If there are no complaints, they are covered up." If handled objectively, a session, now and then, for raising questions, making criticisms of the program, and pointing out inconsistencies can relieve tensions and produce constructive suggestions.

Evaluation of the training methods and their results should be carried on currently with in-service education.

Some methods of evaluation employed at Kansas State College have been surveys of student and faculty opinion regarding benefits and suggestions for improving the service, interviews with faculty advisers and students, studies of the number of contacts between students and their advisers and the nature of the help given, rating sheets for evaluating the success of advisers' seminars, reviewing the interview notes of advisers.

Reference Library. A library of professional texts, periodicals, tests, and test manuals should be maintained in one of the student personnel offices for the use of the advisers. Having relevant reference materials on hand at advisers' training sessions is helpful. Some member of the group could be assigned the job of checking out references.

Advisers' Handbook. A handbook for advisers has proved helpful at Kansas State College, Grinnell College, and others where the advising system is used. Useful items in the handbook would be a statement of objectives of the program, a description of the processes of orientation, advising appointment schedule, a description of each test in current use and how to interpret it, sample case studies, sample record forms, definitions of psychological and personnel terms, a description of the personnel facilities available to students and faculty, discussion of counseling techniques, sample interview notes, an explanation of the role of the adviser, a discussion of democratic group methods, and bibliography of professional literature. Suggestions from academic faculty members are helpful in working out the handbook. For example, one new adviser called attention of the clinical staff to the unfamiliar terms used in the handbook. Many, he pointed out, did not know the meaning of a percentile rank, "structuring" an interview, supportive counseling, ambivalence, etc. Student personnel workers, like many other professional groups, have developed a characteristic vocabulary which has been adapted to the needs of the group. A glossary of professional terms and careful explanations and illustrations should be contained in the handbook.

Leadership for Faculty Advisers. The foregoing suggestions imply that the training is conducted with the help of trained student personnel workers. If they are not available from among the staff of the school or college, help can sometimes be secured from nearby colleges or universities or from the state department of education.

Williamson and Hahn (262:283*ff.*) recommend that the in-service program include seminars (or workshops) directed by workers from nearby colleges and that financial subsidies be made to teachers in order to enable them to take college courses in personnel work during vacation periods or during leaves of absence granted for this purpose.

A training program was arranged for Wyandotte High School teachers (Kansas City, Kansas) in 1949 through the cooperation of Kansas University and Kansas State College student personnel workers and members of the staff of the Kansas State Department of Education.

A continuous program of in-service training was worked out for Fargo High School under the leadership of the director of guidance, although only three teachers in the school had had previous training in student personnel work (75:290*ff.*).

A high school made use of two experts, Hamrin and Strang, to assist in a conference on personnel methods before the school opened in the fall (144:31*ff.*). Under their direction, the teachers studied ways of identifying student problems, counseling techniques, and group activities. The students took part through discussions of their problems and of the help that they thought the teachers could give them with these problems.

A summer workshop in student personnel methods is operated for instructors at Kansas State Teachers College in Emporia, Kansas, and teachers are paid while they attend. Experts are engaged to assist with the work.

Faculty advisers' seminars were initiated at Kansas State College by the director of student personnel and continued under the leadership of a member of the counseling bureau staff who gave about half of his time to the advisory program. Assistance in planning, furnishing materials, giving information, counseling demonstrations, training in democratic group methods, and conferring individually with faculty advisers was given by other professional counselors.

On the subject of leadership for faculty advisers, Germane and Germane (78:304) state:

Unless there is someone upon the staff who is prepared professionally for counseling and who is held responsible for directing and assisting the teachers and administrators in this all-important, detailed, labor-and-time-consuming task— personnel work—the job will never be done right. Attempts will be sporadic, and in the end, they will die out.

If this is true, Warters (252:198) says, in setting up a program for in-service education in personnel work, the first and perhaps the most important step is the one to be taken by the administrators—provision for the service of a trained, qualified leader. Certainly, the support of the admin-

istration and administrative arrangements are most important to the success of such a program.

Problems of Administration

Freshman Advising. While some colleges provide for every student to have advising, there is some evidence in favor of advising only freshmen. When the entire student body is assigned to faculty members, the load may be so heavy that the adviser is unable to do a thorough job. If only freshmen are assigned, the load can perhaps be kept to ten or less per adviser, a reasonable number. In small colleges and high schools, perhaps it would be possible to work out an advising program for every student. When establishing a new program, the faculty might choose to begin by advising new students and plan to extend the service eventually to all students.

Who Counsels. There are a number of advantages to involving every faculty member in the program. There might be some rare exceptions to this rule. Possibly a faculty member who gives virtually full time to research would not want to advise students. In general, good teachers are usually good advisers. Even those who are reluctant to give the time to it at first may grow to like the work. Advising and in-service education is a growth experience for the faculty member. Support for the program is gained by involving the whole faculty. If any members are excused, advising may appear an extra responsibility to those who participate. New faculty members can be informed when they are hired that advising is one of their responsibilities. They might be selected for advising ability as well as academic qualifications.

Selection of Faculty Advisers. It is a common practice, however, to use only a part of the faculty for advising. If only selected faculty members are to participate, a method of selection must be developed. They might be chosen by department heads, deans, assistant deans, or members of the administrative staff. In a small institution, they might be chosen by the director of personnel or the dean of students, in high school by principal or superintendent.

Bergstresser [22] advises:

In the first place I would like to have the selection made by a committee of persons who (1) know the faculty members well; (2) have clearly defined for themselves the functions that faculty counselors are supposed to perform; and (3) have considerable knowledge of and experience with the counseling process.

This method of appointment, and also of review and reappointment, should effectively guard against having faculty counselors who are disinterested in or negatively conditioned toward counseling, who are unfitted by personality or

[22] Bergstresser, John L., in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 315.

character to be trusted in the counseling relationship, who are unable to recognize their inability to attempt deep therapy, or who are overzealous in exploring student problems in terms of projection of their own unresolved conflicts.

On the positive side, the selecting committee would seek faculty counselors who (1) have a genuine interest in talking with individual students about almost any subject matter field; (2) are reasonably attractive, emotionally mature, and well adjusted in terms of personality; (3) have already become familiar with the institution and secure in their teaching work and relationships; (4) possess a large share of common sense and (5) definitely want and prefer to spend several hours a week in counseling as a regular part of their total assignment of work in the institution.

As Gilbert [23] points out:

Some of those most interested in becoming counselors are unsuited in terms of personality characteristics and scientific attitudes for such work. Other faculty members who would make excellent counselors do not wish to give up the time from their research, for example, for such work. In other cases department heads will object to having their staff members give up such time because counseling services do not receive the nationwide publicity that research does.

Feder [24] also suggests:

To be realistic we must recognize that many teachers are basically neither interested nor skilled in dealing with individual students and their problems. Furthermore, some faculty members (and perhaps even a few professional counselors) should not, because of their own personality organization, or disorganization, be allowed to engage in the deep personal contacts characteristic of the counseling situation.

Froelich (75:290*ff.*) reports that one high school principal seeks evidence of the teacher's expressed interest in counseling through summer courses taken voluntarily in personnel work or related subjects, his participation in nonteaching activities, and initiative and ingenuity displayed in his classwork and home-room work.

Advisers usually prefer to advise students in their own or related subject-matter fields. If advisers are chosen for genuine interest in students, willingness to serve, and an open mind to new concepts and techniques, the program will develop much faster than if no criteria for selection is used. However, if hitherto disinterested faculty members are drawn into the program and exposed to personnel methods, there are other gains.

[23] Gilbert, William M., "Training Faculty Counselors at the University of Illinois," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work* (258), University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 303.

[24] Feder, Daniel D., "Selection and Training of Faculty Counselors," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work* (258), University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 289.

We have in mind a research chemist whose interest in his experiments was so profound and his drive to make new discoveries so urgent that he was reluctant to give time to faculty advising. Yet his relationships with his students were very close. He took a personal interest in their health and well-being, invited them to his home, and took time to chat with them about community problems. He stimulated them to use their own initiative and aroused enthusiasm for their work which equaled his own. He developed the attitude that the time he spent with students was as productive as that which he spent alone in the laboratory.

Flow of Information. Shank [25] asks the question, "Should the faculty counselors have access to information in other specialized personnel offices?" He says that if faculty counselors are to be used effectively and are to become genuine parts of the personnel program, there must be an exchange of information both ways.

In many institutions conscientious and sensible faculty counselors are annoyed, if not insulted, by the attitude of certain specialized staff members, notably clinical psychologists and psychometrists. The hesitancy of these members of the team to confide anything—even the fact that they are working with given students—may well create antagonism that will undermine cooperative operation. The attitude of certain clinicians reminds me of the college doctor I knew some fifteen years ago who felt that his oath of service forbade him to let the personnel office know when he found evidence of severe heart murmur or high blood pressure or even a positive Wassermann. I need not labor this point.

Workable Advising Schedule. If the advising program is to be effective, a specified time must be provided in the schedule for students to see their advisers and for advisers to consult records. At least one school dismisses classes on advising day. A workable schedule might include an appointment before registration, one at the time failing notices are sent out, and one before the semester ends. Some systems require an appointment every six weeks. Of course, if the adviser registers the student, the first appointment is ensured. Others might be made equivalent to attending class. If grades are reported by the adviser to the student, a contact is ensured.

A plan of voluntary meetings with advisers has some advantages. Usually a student who is interested enough to seek out and consult his adviser benefits more than a disinterested one who is obliged to see his. However, a voluntary basis encourages haphazard contacts. The element of time and conflicting commitments on the part of both faculty and students prevent a satisfactory number of contacts. If the contact is left for off hours or holidays, it is so easy for the student to delay, to go home for a

[25] Shank, Donald J., "Some Questions about Faculty Counseling," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 311*ff.*

week end, to find he needs the time to write a paper, attend a meeting, or go to a show, he loses his way, or forgets the time, etc.

One contact before registration is almost indispensable to the plan, because this is the time when the test data relating to abilities and interests can be used to the best advantage. For example, inspection of personnel records of a failing student at a large college disclosed that he had been permitted to enroll for two difficult scientific courses in the same semester in spite of the fact that he ranked in the lower fifth of his class in mental ability and showed no interest in science. No entrance counseling had been given. This college employed the practice of a post-registration advisory contact. The incentive to make the contact and to use the test data was much less after the student was already registered. Not only should a definite time be set in the schedule for advisory contacts, but time should be provided for the adviser to study the records and a careful routine developed for issuing information and records to advisers.

The faculty advisers themselves may prefer to work out the content of their appointments with advisees. The following is a suggested guide:

Preenrollment Appointment

1. What does the student expect to get out of school or college? Can he define his goals?
2. Does the student have a realistic picture of his potentialities?
3. Does he have adequate information about the offerings of the school?
4. Is the student's choice of classes harmonious with his tested abilities and interests?
5. Does the student plan to participate in suitable extra-class activities?

Appointment Following First Five Weeks

1. Is the student making progress toward his stated objectives?
2. Is his course of study suitable?
3. What is the state of his adjustment to classes, to other students, and to the group or home in which he lives?
4. If he has not already defined his goals, has he made progress in this direction?
5. Do you notice evidence of educational or emotional problems?
6. Does he have all the information he needs, occupational, health, educational, activities, services; if not, does he know where to get it?
7. Is he making use of available services?

Appointment Near End of First Semester

1. Does the student feel he has made progress during first semester?
2. What are his plans for "after semester closes"—enrollment, change in curriculum, withdrawal, employment, other training, remedial assistance, or others?

3. Has the student profited by participation in student government, social life, activities, living group, etc.?

4. Has he enrolled in a suitable curriculum for the next semester?

Appointment Near End of Second Semester

1. What changes has the student made in attitudes, habits, knowledge, and goals during one year of school?

2. Can he define his goals?

3. What are his plans for future?

4. If he plans to return to the school, has he enrolled in a suitable curriculum for the next semester?

Doubtless, the student would in many cases divert the attention of the adviser from this outline to problems or subjects which are urgent and interesting to him, and he should feel free to do so. The adviser, also, could be expected to have his own ideas about how to conduct the interviews. The foregoing organization is merely a suggestion of how the program might go on.

Anticipating Mistakes. The personnel worker who is trying to establish a new program should be prepared for mistakes. The new department or bureau in a college or high school is often hampered by limited funds. The personnel director may start his program with inexperienced help. The enthusiastic young clinician may give the impression that he regards all his clients as psychopaths. The test-minded graduate of a highly academic institution may interpret his evidence too literally. (One young counselor reported that he told a client his test scores were too low for him to be successful in college. The client repeated the incident widely and proceeded to make a creditable record in college.)

Work with a faculty advising program presents the possibility of misuse of data. Some clinical-minded personnel workers hesitate to make available to faculty members the confidential information gathered by testing and other methods. Test data and other information must be given to advisers. There is some risk that the information will not be accurately interpreted or used to the best advantage, but the fact is that faculty members do considerable counseling without adequate data. Objective evidence and training increase their effectiveness. The gains compensate for the risk.

The indiscriminate use of low-ability scores and unfavorable personality scores can be kept to a minimum through careful in-service education. Some students or their parents may be offended by clumsy amateurish counseling, but it is surprising how lenient the public will be when they know a real effort is being made to help the individual student.

Interview Notes. Interview notes kept by the adviser are very useful to

the adviser himself in understanding the total adjustment of the student and evaluating his progress. If a change in advisers occurs, the new adviser finds them invaluable. They are useful to other staff members in cases of referral and placement.

Interview notes might include diagnosis of problems, prognosis, and a few statements regarding what happened during the interview. Agreement or disagreement between test data and other facts might be noted. The adviser's work will be more effective if he tries to see the test data and other information about the student as a pattern. That is, he should try to see the relationship of each item of information to the total picture. Social development of the student should be noted. Interview notes should include a statement of the student's goals and a description of his progress toward them. They need not be long. They should be dated and signed or initialed by the adviser.

Actual Examples. The following excerpts have been taken verbatim from the interview notes of faculty members with minimum training in counseling. The case data on each student precede her adviser's comments.

Case of R. G.

	Percentile
Ohio Psychological	20
Coop. English	18
Coop. Social Studies	33
Coop. Natural Science	43
Coop. Math.	51

This student's adviser wrote:

"Tests show her very low in comparison to other freshman students at Kansas State College. Only twenty per cent of the freshmen scored less than she did in the aptitude test, and 18 per cent less in the English test. She scored below the average in two other achievement tests. She thought she ranked third or fourth in a high school senior class of 12. Her grades at the end of four weeks in college are C's—no F's. Has a general idea she wants to do some type of social service work, but has not made a definite choice of vocation. She is happily situated in a rooming house with three other girls and seems to have managed her study time well, and evidently has no problems of adjustment. She is eating at the cafeteria and restaurants. She says she has had no homesickness. She has a pleasing personality, is well poised, and if she can continue to get average grades in college should make a useful citizen. *Since Miss G. had made low grades in her tests, Aptitude and Achievement, I thought she might be having a difficult time of making her adjustments to college life. But she was happy*

and pleased with all her teachers and courses and was doing average work. I asked her if she would like to come to our home for dinner and she was pleased at the opportunity."

A second interview was recorded:

"Vocational interest undecided yet—may be a teacher. Extra-curricular activities, Gamma Delta and Lutheran Young People. Works in seed laboratory six hours a week. R. seems to be having trouble in English. She is working hard, but is well pleased with her school environment and social life. I helped her prepare her second semester schedule."

Her adviser reported a third interview:

"Does not plan to go to summer school. Will work in —— this summer she thinks. Likes her rooming place and plans to stay next fall. Has had satisfactory social and religious life. Has not decided what her plans for the future are, but she has adjusted nicely and I think those things will work out."

This adviser showed superior understanding of the student's limitations, strengths, and personal adjustment. He recognized that her academic ability was marginal and was happy to settle for average grades. The student indicated in two places in the Individual Record Form and in two interviews with her adviser that she would like help in making a vocational choice. She should have been referred to the counseling bureau for vocational guidance.

Case of B. G.

High School Record

English: B, B, A, B	Science: A, B, A
Spanish: A	Math.: A, B, C
Social Studies: A, A, B, B	Voc. Subj.: A, B

	Percentile
Ohio Psychological	56
Coop. English	70
Coop. Social Studies	83
Coop. Natural Science	63
Coop. Math.	55

Number in graduating class—113, rank in class—fifth

This student showed average ability and superior achievement in high school and on achievement tests.

Her adviser wrote:

"Seems to be doing average or better in all courses except Household Physics. . . . Had low grade slip in Household Physics. Said she felt she was always trying to catch up in that course. Admitted less interest in it

and left it 'til last in preparation. Household Physics is not a course for freshmen and she probably is competing with students of upper class group. From high school record she should be able to carry college work with average success. Was nervous and ill at ease. Responded to questions but rather shy in responses. Did not talk easily. Showed pride in achievements made in high school and college work up to present. Somewhat embarrassed by low grade slip. Said she had received two scholarships for work in high school."

Adviser's notes for the second interview indicated progress for B. G.:

"Miss G. has developed more poise and self assurance. She came on time for her interview and asked as well as responded to questions. I asked her how she was getting along in Household Physics and she said all right—at least she was above an F now. She wanted to know of what value Household Physics was in her course. She could see no connection. So far as next semester's work, she wanted to be sure she was enrolled in square dancing and tennis. She described what they were doing in the class in modern dancing and said she wasn't good at making up dances. Had been going to an extra class meeting to learn ballroom dancing but class had lately been discontinued. She is enjoying her chemistry and thought she might make an A in it. She asked about technician work but said she liked to work with people and still had the same desire to be a hospital dietician. She seemed to enjoy talking and prolonged the interview though she said she had no problems. She asked some questions regarding when she would have electives and when she would enroll."

The advisee recorded in the Individual Record Form that she had had severe headaches all her life. Her efforts to compete and make superior grades with average ability could have produced tensions and adjustment problems. Nondirective counseling was indicated.

These interview notes, kept by faculty members relatively inexperienced in advising, suggest that it is possible for the academic staff to participate profitably in the personnel program. An examination of interview notes and freshman folders after a year of advising at Kansas State College indicated that study schedules, study habits, note taking, and outlining were popular subjects for discussion with advisers. A large percentage of advisers had discussed grades with their advisees and offered constructive suggestions if grades were lower than the student desired. Interview notes indicated that freshmen whose high school grades were high and whose college grades were average were just as worried as students in danger of failing. Advisers sometimes suggested that students see their instructors about classroom problems. Some advisers suggested tutors for failing students.

Some advisers were successful in dispelling resentment of students

toward required courses. Some helped their advisees to find places to eat or to join organizations.

A study of advisers' notes indicated increasing use of test results. The advisers showed an understanding of the limitations of tests as well as their usefulness. Referrals to the clinical staff were increased.

Clerical Efficiency. An important factor in the success of the advising program is the efficiency of the personnel clerical staff. The mechanics of preparing and issuing student folders to advisers should be carefully worked out. This involves the planning of freshman orientation to permit prompt scoring and recording of test results before the date of registration.

Transferring Advisees. Advisees should be transferrable to new advisers when they request it or when the adviser thinks it desirable. It is not necessarily a reflection on the adviser for an advisee to want to change. He should not expect to be able to help every student who comes to him. An adviser should be able to recognize when another faculty member can be of more assistance than he.

Conditions Favorable for Establishing an Advising Program

Conditions favorable for establishing a student personnel program have been described as follows:

1. The faculty accept the plan.
2. The plan grows out of the needs of the school system.
3. Leaders are professionally trained.
4. Information is collected about the student.
5. Case data are used.
6. A specific time is provided for students to see their advisers.
7. Time is provided for the adviser to study the records and for in-service training.
8. The administrative officers support the program.
9. Provision is made for recognizing the contribution of the faculty adviser and status.

Example of High School Advising Interviews

Two interviews are reproduced here which illustrate the kind of work done by the high school adviser. Their purpose is educational advisement, as distinguished from psychotherapy.

The testing is over and the adviser has had one social contact with the student; now the tenth-grader has come for his scheduled appointment with the adviser to review the curricular offering and his own potentialities and to enroll.

ADVISER: Before we talk about registration, probably we ought to talk about what you expect to get out of high school and how the school can be of the most possible value to you.

STUDENT: Well, I don't know! Everybody goes to high school. My folks think I should go, of course, and maybe go to college.

A.: This school offers several different kinds of courses. We'd like to give you what would suit you best.[26] What do you think you would like? What did you like best this year in the ninth grade and before?

S.: Well, I don't know. I thought you'd tell me. I sort of liked mathematics and I saw boys working in the metal shop in high school. I like to work on cars. What do I have to take?

A.: You might want to sign up for a course in mathematics. English and social studies are required. I'd like to know a little more about what you have been thinking about high school.

S.: I haven't thought much about it. I worked for a grocery store this summer but I didn't like it much. The pay wasn't very good. Some of my friends are going to take metal shop.

A.: You say you like to work on cars and that your friends are planning to take metal shop work. Have you thought anything about courses which will be of help to you after you leave high school?

S.: I thought maybe those tests I took this week would help me pick a course. I thought you would tell me about them.

A.: The test results will help us find the best courses for you, and your grades will help too. If you would like to go to college, there is a curriculum to prepare you for that, and if you plan to finish school at the end of your senior year in high school, there are several choices.[27] I see that you have medium grades in English and social studies and good grades in algebra and general science. Your test scores in mathematics and science are in the upper 40 per cent of your class. That means that you ranked better than six out of ten people in mathematics and science.

S.: I sorta like mathematics. What could I take in that?

A.: You could take geometry. It's a good thing to study if you ever want to work with blueprints and it's helpful in printing and even in farming, and it is helpful in metal shop too. You will learn how to figure the surface area of a triangle or a cylinder and other kinds of surfaces which you will work with in the metal shop. If you still want to take a metal shop course in your senior year, you could take it then.

S.: I might save the metal shop course until my senior year but then what would I take for my fourth course now?

[26] Adviser helps define situation.
[27] Adviser offers alternatives.

A.: It depends partly on whether you want to go on to college or not.[28]

S.: Well, I might want to go to college, but I don't know for sure. I don't know if I'm smart enough to go to college. What do the tests say?

A.: Your scores on the mental-ability tests make us think you could do from medium to superior work in college.

S.: Could I take something that would be all right if I go to college and still help me if I don't?

A.: You could take biology. That would be acceptable as a college entrance requirement and it will tell you something about your own body and the physical make-up of animals. If you want to take typewriting, it would be useful in business after you leave high school, or if you go on to college, you could type your own papers. It is a useful skill in almost any occupation. Another choice would be a language. Some colleges prefer that entering freshmen have some credits in languages. Of course almost all of them require two years of work. That would mean that you would take French or German or Spanish or Latin in your junior year, too. Vocational agriculture is a choice, too. That would be a two- or three-year course. You would learn about kinds of soils and kinds of seeds, farm buildings, crop rotation, how to care for livestock and farm machinery, etc.

Maybe you would like a class in woodworking. You would learn about kinds of wood, how to finish it and use tools. You would probably have an opportunity to make some pieces of furniture. Mechanical drawing is another course you might take. It helps students to plan how to make articles out of wood and metal. It helps you to use your materials without wasting them.[29]

S.: I know I don't want to take a language and I don't think I want to be a farmer.

A.: That leaves typewriting, woodworking, mechanical drawing, and biology. If you want to take a good deal of shopwork, you might plan to take mechanical drawing, woodworking, metal shop, and printing sometime during the next three years.

S.: Well, even if I go to college, maybe I wouldn't have to take everything important this year. If I take geometry, that will help me in metal shop or printing, if I take it later. That counts up to English, social studies, and geometry; those are all courses that I have to study for. I'd like to take one class where I could do the outside work in class and make things. Couldn't I take woodworking and save some of these other courses for later? [30]

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[28] Adviser tries to help define goals.
[29] Adviser gives information about situation and more choices.
[30] Client makes plan.

A.: If you are sure that is what you want, I'll make out your cards. Your test results show that your interests are similar to those of people who like to work with machines and plans for machines and to make things. Probably you will find geometry and woodworking especially interesting to you.

S.: I think it is a good course for me.

A.: This takes care of the classwork. Do you have any plans for taking part in school activities?

S.: I don't know what activities there are. Last year, the boys seemed to have a lot of fun dancing at school parties, but I don't know how to dance.

A.: This year Miss Smith is offering a short course after school in social dancing. Maybe you would like to enroll in it.

S.: Oh, I don't know. I guess I'll wait and see what the other boys do.

A.: Are you interested in model airplanes?

S.: I do have a model plane that I'm planning to put a motor in when I find out more how to do it.

A.: There is a club made up of boys who have model planes, and some of the businessmen meet with them. Would you like to know more about it?

S.: Yes, I think I would. How can I find out?

A.: You will find some information about it in your Handbook for New Students. I will put your name on a list to give to the president of the club and he will tell you more about it. There will be a meeting soon of the members and all new students who are interested in the project. If you will watch the bulletin board and the school paper, you can find out the time and place of the meeting and attend it.

S.: Thanks a lot. I guess I'll be shoving off.

A.: If you decide to join that class in social dancing, let me know or get in touch with Miss Smith. I'll be seeing you in a few weeks, but if you want to see me before then, just drop in. I'll be here on Mondays and Wednesdays at 1:15 p.m. and after school.[31]

The adviser didn't spend much time defining the adviser-client relationship or situation, because it was pretty well understood.

The second interview occurred several weeks later.

S.: Well, I thought I'd just drop in, like you said—mm—that day—you know.

A.: What's on your mind today?

S.: I don't know whether you already know this or not, but I'm not getting along very well with my English teacher, that is, I like her all right, but I haven't passed any of the tests.

[31] Adviser leaves way open for more contacts.

A.: What do you think is wrong?

S.: Well, I'm just not getting it, I guess, she says.

A.: What particular parts bother you?

S.: Well, one thing, she says I can't spell and I don't use capitals always in the right places.

A.: Are you really interested in improving your spelling?

S.: I don't see why English is so important anyway. Lots of people make a living and get to be good in their jobs without English. What good is English to anyone building big buildings or inventing new machinery?

A.: Probably you don't see much relationship between what you like to do best and your English classes, but most of us have to learn to write a decent business letter. We have to talk to other people in our occupations about our jobs and about political matters. In other words we have to be able to communicate with others in ways that are understandable to them. Engineering students in college find out that they can't get through their courses unless they can spell and write reasonably good English. And after they leave college they have to write letters of application and letters to business firms.

S.: Well, instead of writing a theme about "My Favorite Sport," why don't they let us write letters like that in English class?

A.: Maybe if you would talk to your teacher, she would think it is a good idea.

S.: I don't know. She's kind of hard to talk to. Maybe you could tell me something to do.

A.: You would like for me to tell you.

S.: Well, sure. You ought to know.

A.: Maybe we can work it out together. Have you thought of anything you could do?

S.: I guess I could get a speller and study the words. What else?

A.: You could keep a list of your misspelled words from all of your papers and look them up in the dictionary.

S.: I could get my dad to listen to me spell.

In these interviews, directive techniques were used, but the adviser did not attempt to force decisions on the student. He showed respect for the student's wishes and opinions. He explained choices and alternatives and gave information about the student's abilities and interests. There was no apparent emotional problem.

Summary

There is a trend in student personnel work toward a nucleus staff of trained personnel workers, who work with selected faculty advisers. The advantages for involving faculty advisers in the program are better under-

standing of the program by the faculty, a spread of effect throughout the entire school, fuller use of personnel services by the faculty and students, and fuller use of the distinctive contributions of faculty members.

Securing the cooperation of the faculty involves respect for their ideas and their contributions, faculty participation in planning the program, helping them to discover what the services can do for them, basing the program on local needs, either material rewards for the counselors or recognition of their successes or both. Recognition by means of salary increases, rank, reduction of teaching load, compensation for professional training are recommended. Administrative support for the program is essential.

Resistance to the program can be expected, even from some who appear to support it, because adherence to its principles requires changes in well-established beliefs and attitudes. The program may appear to threaten the status of some faculty members and administrators.

In-service training should provide that faculty members choose many of the subjects for discussion. Among those topics recommended are understanding the human personality, individual differences and how to measure them, test interpretation, vocational information, methods of counseling, reading skills and study habits, problems of general motivation, professional literature in the field, how and when to make referrals, symptoms of maladjustment, democratic group methods, offerings and services of the specific school or college, and evaluation of the program. Practice counseling with a pseudo client, wire or tape recordings of advising interviews, and supervised counseling of students were among the methods reported successful. Provision should be made for evaluation of the in-service education process. Digressions from the discussion plan may be productive. Dividing the faculty advisers into small groups for at least part of the training is reported to be effective. Close contact should be maintained between faculty advisers and the student personnel staff by personal interviews and flow of information in both directions. The student personnel worker should provide materials and suggest procedures when they are needed. Summer-school classes in student personnel work and other professional education are recommended for faculty advisers.

Criteria for selecting faculty advisers might be interest in the individual student, emotional stability, evidences of interest such as enrollment in suitable classes and workshops, and willingness to give the necessary time and effort.

CHAPTER 13 *The Training of Professional Counselors and Student Personnel Workers*

The preceding chapters have described some of the functions of personnel workers. Authorities are not in agreement on the kind of preparation needed for filling these various roles. There is partial agreement, at least, that some functions can be performed with less training than is required by others.

Considering that presumably every kind of student personnel work involves understanding the human personality, it might be assumed that the training would include the study of this subject. Of equal importance would be understanding the complex society in which the individual lives and the relationship of the individual to the group. Related to this area would be the acceptance of social responsibility, the understanding of democratic principles, and the development of a philosophy of life. Another broad classification of subject matter would be the study of individual differences, their measurement and related statistical study. Acquaintance with effective methods of democratic group leadership and a knowledge of group processes are recommended. Counseling procedures and personnel methods would be a fourth area. Supervised practice in counseling and in other specialized services is an essential part of the training. Vocational information and vocational psychology comprise the seventh area of study, of importance to vocational and all-purpose counselors and placement officers.

Understanding the Human Personality

Assuming an undergraduate background which includes basic psychology, the authors prescribe a thorough study of the psychology of personality, personality development, origins, organization, and dynamics; the genesis and growth of human behavior, its latent as well as manifest determinants; behavior tendencies and patterns. Torrance (236)

suggests that these units be included: the organism, heredity and environment, mind and body, differentiation hypothesis, and motivation; the self, origins (genetic formation), evolution of self (re-formation), defense of self.

As basic texts for the class in dynamics of human behavior, Torrance suggests *Personality: A Biosocial Approach to Origins and Structure,* by Gardner Murphy (151), and *The Psychology of Ego-Involvements,* by Sherif and Cantril (208).

Among useful supplementary readings would be Maier's book, *Frustration* (126).

Anderson (12) states, "The trainee should become familiar with the general course of human development from infancy to maturity, with special emphasis on the characteristics of the adolescent period. He should be able to recognize signs of immaturity for what they are and to understand the characteristic problems of the older adolescent."

Courses suggested by Torrance (236) include psychology of childhood and adolescence and psychology of exceptional children.

Anderson would include work in abnormal psychology and mental hygiene in order to familiarize the trainee with the symptoms of serious mental disorders, particularly so that he will know when referral for special therapeutic services is necessary or desirable. Hahn and MacLean (86) also mention these classes as desirable preparation. Mental hygiene would presumably include, among other subjects, a study of conditions predisposing to favorable adjustment and to maladjustment, defense mechanisms, and preventive measures.

The psychology of learning should be a part of the trainee's study. Motivation, the discovery of the satisfying response for the first time, insight, fixation and elimination, retention, and theories of learning were included by Melton (136) in his second unit in the psychology of learning. Forgetting, frustration, resistance, emotion as it affects learning, and problem solving would be suitable subtopics. Dimensions of learning, learning through activity, laws of learning, learning attitudes, and forces which operate in the context of learning might be included. With regard to the training of clinical psychologists, Jacobsen (98:18) states:

In the area of background or basic courses, I would like to include work in the psychology of learning. . . . Much of the activity of the clinical psychologist is going to be concerned with the problem of learning and relearning, of modifying attitudes, of helping the patient to restructure habit systems. Certainly it is desirable that the student have some grasp of learning theory and of the technique and skill involved in re-education.

The University of Pittsburgh core curriculum for the master's and Ph.D. degrees in psychology includes classes in the psychology of learning. Study

in this area is also recommended by Hahn and MacLean (86) and by Anderson (12).

Also relevant would be classes in the history of psychology or systems of psychology, with exploration of the contributions and viewpoints of leaders in the field. Jacobsen (98:18) says, "A knowledge of the history of psychology, particularly of modern psychology, seems to be fundamental if the student is to have any reasonable background for his advanced study. At the University of Iowa such a course explores the major, modern systems of psychology."

The announcement of examination content in the field of counseling and guidance (American Psychological Association Board of Examiners, 1948) indicates that it covers four fields of fundamental materials, one of which includes learning; the other three are developmental psychology, personality dynamics, and motivation.

Philosophy and Social Responsibility

"Turning next to the area of the social studies, a knowledge of the basic materials in the field of sociology and anthropology, in economics and in political science, would appear to be a minimal requirement for the individual who is going to work with people living in our present social order," according to Jacobsen (98). He would include an introduction to social work in the training of the clinical psychologist, so that "he may know the problems and the approach of the social worker." Torrance (236) would include classes in social psychology, social pathology, and general sociology. New York State's requirements for permanent counselor certification include two to four hours of graduate sociology (160).

Williamson (257:59) suggests industrial and social psychology and sociology.

A class in the psychology of social movements is offered by the University of Pittsburgh as an elective for candidates for a Ph.D. degree in psychology.

On the subject of preparatory background for the therapist, Rogers (188:437) says:

It seems desirable that the student should have a broad experiential knowledge of the human being in his cultural setting. This may be given, to some extent, by reading or course work in cultural anthropology or sociology. Such knowledge needs to be supplemented by experience of living with or dealing with individuals who have been the product of cultural influences very different from those which have molded the student. Such experience and knowledge often seem necessary to make possible the deep understanding of another. . . .

In our judgment another valuable phase of student preparation is the oppor-

tunity to *consider and formulate one's own basic philosophy*.[1] The person who is to carry on therapy needs security within himself, and this may come in part from having thought through some of the basic questions regarding human life, and having formulated tentative but personally meaningful answers. Security in one's self is certainly not gained through courses *about* philosophy, but may come through courses in philosophy, education, or religion in which the effort is made to face up to the deep questions of existence, and the opportunity is given to the student to clarify his own thinking.

A study of philosophy would presumably include an exploration of democratic principles and their background.

Strang (219:4) lists as one of five kinds of background knowledge for the counselor: "Knowledge of the cultural forces influencing young people today, and this person (the client) in particular."

Measurement

The study of individual differences would, no doubt, be included in the portion of training classified as understanding the human personality, but the study of their measurement might be considered as a separate classification. For the highly trained clinical counselor, Hahn and MacLean (86:33) recommend tests and measurements, individual testing, psychometrics, and elementary, intermediate, and advanced statistics. Torrance (236) includes group and individual psychological testing, statistical methods, and clinical testing practicum in training leading to a master's degree. Anderson (12) divides the subject matter into six categories, one of which he calls "mental tests and their interpretation." He states:

Here especially superficiality is to be avoided, since mental tests are not in a stage of evolution where the results can be taken at face value and used uncritically in the analysis of an individual personality. Statistical understanding should involve more than the recognition of different types of relative scores. Emphasis should be placed, however, on information leading to the correct *interpretation* rather than on the administration and scoring of tests or the manipulation of statistical formulae.

Diagnosis, evaluation and analysis of data, and the use of test results with other data and patterns of data should be studied.

Jacobsen's recommendations (98:16*ff.*) for the training of clinical psychologists include this statement:

It is essential that the student acquire during his first year of graduate study a firm grounding in the theory of measurement and the design of experiment. One of the major activities of the clinical psychologist in his work as a member of a team will be concerned with the measurement of ability, attitude, interest and capacity. It is reasonable that he understand the statistical and mathematical background and assumptions that underlie the tests and other evaluating instruments which

[1] Italics added.

he will use in his study of the patient. . . . As part of his introduction to clinical psychology he should know something of the way in which the Binet Test or the Bellevue-Wechsler Test are constructed and the way in which they are used in the study of patients. This should be not merely a theoretical or didactic instruction, but should include a *clerkship* type of training given in the clinical center.

We should like to suggest that it is desirable, if at all possible, to include also a study of projective techniques such as the Rorschach, Thematic Apperception Test, word association tests, and the like. It would also be well for the student to include a study of personality inventories, such as the Minnesota Personality Scale, Bell Adjustment Inventory, and Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. The measurement of attitudes and interests should be studied as well as the testing of mental ability, special aptitude, and achievement. Personal data blanks, autobiographies, self-rating scales, and entrance blanks should also receive attention.

Luchins (123:204–205) criticizes the tool-centered type of training. He suggests that the training program provide observation of the behavior of people in free, test, and experimental situations, before the trainee encounters any tests. Examining procedures would be introduced as an outgrowth of an actual specific individual problem being studied. At all times the instrument used in testing would be regarded in the light of its application to the problem.

Shakow (207:21ff.) suggests that training for clinical application of test techniques include the theory and philosophy of testing: understanding of the place of testing in systematic psychology, its relationship to other forms of directed acquisition of knowledge, its strengths and weaknesses as a scientific method and as an applied technique, and the theory and practice of test construction; psychological aspects, statistical aspects, relationship to factorial analysis, and other more psychological methods of personality analysis. He recommends acquaintance with a variety of test devices: intelligence—verbal and performance, individual and group; personality, questionnaire and projective; educational and vocational guidance; sensory and motor; and some general notion about their applications. The general emphasis should be on getting the "feel" of contact with a variety of types of patients as well as the "feel" of a variety of test procedures, according to Shakow. Training at the field level is strongly advised, with a preliminary intensive "soaking" in patient contacts in order that the trainee will become aware of patients' attitudes and experiences.

Group Methods

The personnel worker should understand the motivations at work in a group; how to conduct a democratic group discussion and how to exercise

leadership without dominating; how to help the group to define its objectives and make progress toward them.

A knowledge of effective group leadership would be particularly useful to the personnel administrator, activities director, classroom teacher, counselor who participates in in-service training of faculty advisers, and residence-hall counselors, among others. The trainee does not know exactly what kind of position he may be able to secure, but it is probable that at some time in his career he will be called upon for teaching or leadership, either of other personnel workers or of faculty members, students, or adults in civic welfare projects. A knowledge of effective group methods and techniques will make him more employable and help him to solve problems of administration and interpersonal relations which arise in connection with his work.

Acquaintance with methods and uses of group therapy and self-exploratory groups, role-playing both with the maladjusted and the well-adjusted, process analysis, and sociometrics would be desirable. Since reflection of feeling and the attitudes encouraged by the study and practice of counseling help the group leader, this study should accompany or follow the study of counseling. Both study and practice of group methods are recommended.

We should also like to call attention to the effect upon the trainee of experiencing these methods in his counseling, psychology, and other classes. The trainee will be inclined to lead and teach in the way he has been led and taught. Repeated exposure in the classroom to effective group methods is one of the most important experiences in developing and transmitting to the trainee the necessary attitudes of respect for individual dignity and worth. Although the trainee may be able to accept the concepts and principles intellectually, he adopts them as his own when their effectiveness is demonstrated in his own experience.

Among relevant readings would be the writings of Lewin, Lippitt, White, Bradford, Jenkins, Moreno, Klapman, and Slavson. For the study of group psychodynamics and group psychotherapy, Torrance (236) recommends the following subjects: contributions of psychologists, sociologists, anthropologists, psychiatrists, social workers, educators, speech correctionists, armed services; the integration of the social sciences in the understanding of group structure, group interaction, group behavior, etc.; psychodrama, sociodrama, sociometry, group interview, action methods, nondirective group methods.

Counseling and Personnel Methods

A study of interviewing, the making of case studies, case analysis, various methods of counseling, record keeping, and problems of students are

commonly included within the area of counseling and personnel methods.

One of the most important aspects of this phase of training is the defining of counselor attitudes favorable to effective counseling. Rogers (188:432) says, "There has been a steady trend away from technique, a trend which focuses upon the attitudinal orientation of the counselor. It has become apparent that the most important goal to be achieved is that the student should clarify and understand his own basic relationship to people, and the attitudinal and philosophical concomitants of that relationship." Attitudes of acceptance of others, permissiveness, respect for the individual, belief in the inner core of good in people are explored.

Rogers believes that the purpose of training is increasingly to train therapists, not a particular brand of therapists. As he suggests, techniques should be regarded as an implementation of attitudes.

Jacobsen (98:19) also mentions the importance of the students' attitudes. Suggesting six hours of work in what he calls the introduction to clinical psychology, he states:

> In such an introduction to clinical psychology, I would hope the student would first of all learn something of the responsibilities that come to the individual who proposes to help with other people's problems. He should learn of his relations to the patient and of his relations to other professional members of the team. The attitudes and points of view should be foremost in the mind of the student from the very beginning of his training as a professional psychologist.

Emphasis should be placed on developing self-direction among clients. Development of self-directiveness in the student-trainee is a desirable outcome and would depend considerably on the attitudes of his instructors and supervisors and their belief in his potentialities.

Among the possibilities for making the content meaningful are the use of mimeographed case records to promote analysis and discussion; critiques of the class; role-playing or pseudo counseling, in which each student has an opportunity to play the role of the client and the role of the counselor; counseling demonstrations; recordings of student interviews; and recordings of real counseling interviews. The student may be given an opportunity to write a critique of his own recorded interviews. Students in Torrance's class in principles and techniques of counseling practiced at least three types of interview: test interpretation, vocational information, and personal counseling. For the vocational information interview, each student chose a field unrelated to his own to review for his client (233).

Students rated themselves and others on a five-point scale [2] by the following criteria: establishment of rapport, manner of conducting interview, diction, voice, counselor acceptance, dominance, control and structuring, progress of interview. Each item was defined by the class prior to the

[2] Arranged by Flora D. Smith, graduate student, Kansas State College, 1949–1950.

rating of students. For example, the scale for rapport was defined as follows:

1. Words, manner, facial expression of counselor are receptive and friendly; feeling of warmth and acceptance at initial meeting.
2. Acceptant but superior counselor attitude where the counselor is friendly and warm but on a different plane from his client, acting as a judge and adviser rather than a counselor. Rapport is not characterized by mutual respect.
3. Businesslike relationship, brusque attitude on part of counselor, lack of a real interpersonal relationship.
4. Counselor has moralistic judging attitude wherein the client receives verbal correction for his misdeeds and injunction and reassurance for his personal doubts. The rapport establishment, if any, is more of a parent-child relationship.
5. Cold and/or hostile relationship established, where the counselor becomes a feared figure.

One group of students preferred to inject another classification: friendly, but unable to communicate, excessively verbal.

Supervised Practice

The role-playing experiences would be followed by the assignment to the student of real clients under the close supervision, at first, of an experienced counselor, accompanied by active participation in case conferences and other staff meetings and by personal conferences with the supervisor. Rogers (188:433) suggests that the trend is toward making the practice of therapy a part of training at the earliest practicable moment.

Observation and internship are discussed by Hahn and MacLean (86:29) as perhaps the most important and least developed part of the training program. These processes, the authors state, are the catalytic agents that enable the trainee to synthesize and apply academic learning to live cases with real problems, to get the feel of the one-to-one situation, and to acquire initial skill in the use of counseling tools. They suggest the possibility of one-way screens, intercommunication systems, and recordings, both for observation of the professional counselor by the student and observation of the student-counselor by his supervisor.

For the trainee in clinical psychology, Jacobsen (98:20) recommends opportunities to serve in a psychiatric unit or neurological service, public school program, vocational counseling unit of a university, and social agencies, in so far as possible.

Anderson (12) also treats the subject of supervised experience in the general type of work the trainee desires to enter. He believes the type of experience should not be too narrowly defined. "For a person who wishes to be a dean of men, for example, it would not be necessary that he actually take an internship in a dean's office. Work as a dormitory sponsor,

student intern in the Counseling Center, etc. would be just as acceptable." He suggests internships in the record-keeping division, student-activities division, counseling division, and employment service. Supervised practice in remedial reading and other remedial services would be valuable experience.

A description of the graduate training program in psychology at the University of Pittsburgh (247) includes this comment:

An integral part of the training program of each student should be first-hand guide experience in the type of work which he expects to enter. The Department has facilities, or can arrange for the use of facilities for practical work in each of the fields indicated by the following courses: field work in psychology; research in psychology; teaching of psychology; clinical practice in child problems, speech correction, interviewing and counseling, psychiatric cases, penal cases; and consulting practice in industrial and personnel problems.

Provision is made by the University of Oklahoma for practicum in clinical methods with children and practicum in clinical methods with adults. Either may be repeated until a maximum of eight hours each has accumulated (246).

Implications for the training of counselors can be found in the description of a two-week institute in psychotherapy for 25 physicians (267:1–26). While engaged in intensive study, the group lived and ate together, continuing discussion informally outside the lecture room. Lectures by psychiatrists were followed by the assignment of clients to the physicians and by discussion of cases.

A similar training period was provided for personal counselors employed by the Veterans Administration (188:444ff.). During the six-week training period, these counselors and their leaders also lived with or near each other and spent much time in informal discussion. This close personal relationship appeared to be an important aspect of the training in both instances. The information given by specialists was partially planned in advance but time was also given to subjects suggested by the group. Small group discussions, firsthand experience, and case analysis were included, as well as personal therapy for those who desired it. The experience of personal therapy was reported to be one of the most meaningful experiences.

Rogers (188:433) believes that undergoing therapy helps to sensitize the student to the kind of attitudes and feelings the client is experiencing and to make him empathetic at a deep and significant level. He recommends it not necessarily for resolving the personal conflicts of the trainee, but for the insights developed. This service should be made available to the student if he desires it and whenever he feels the need for it, accord-

ing to Rogers (188:438). "It does not seem consistent with the whole viewpoint of client-centered therapy to require individual therapy of the trainee." He suggests that it might be concomitant with or preceding formal training in therapy.

The VA counselors were given pencil-and-paper tests and were rated on counselor responses in interview before and after the six-week period of training. Interesting differences were found between the written test results and the interview ratings. According to the pencil-and-paper pre-test, reflection of the client's point of view was indicated 49 per cent of the time. According to the first interview rating, reflection was used only 11 per cent of the time. The post-training written test showed 85 per cent reflection and the post-training interview rating 59 per cent reflection. Both measures, however, suggested progress toward the client-centered point of view (188:453*ff.*).

The rating of the VA counselor's supervisor a year after the training period was secured and compared with the data collected during training. The best predictor was apparently the rating given on an interview conducted by the trainee at the close of the training period. The pseudo client was represented as a client unknown to the counselor, presenting a variety of problems and personal conflicts. The trainee was rated on a five-point scale: (1) thinking and communicating completely *with* the expressed attitudes of the client, (2) thinking *about* and *with* the client, (3) thinking *about* the client, balancing the locus of evaluation *inside* and *outside* the client, (4) thinking and communicating *about* and *for* the client, (5) thinking *for* the client. If the trainee displayed a client-centered attitude as measured by the locus-of-evaluation scale and employed client-centered procedures as measured by technique analysis to determine the type of counseling procedures utilized, he was likely to be highly rated by the supervisor at the end of his first year and this rating showed less than one chance in a hundred of being due to chance (188:453*ff.*).

Rogers (188:459) calls attention to the dangers of "oughtness." He repeats the comments of counselors, "I am not as client-centered in my work as I should be," "Perhaps I am merely expressing my own limitations as an ND therapist." He implies that the leaders of trainees should maintain a permissive relationship with their students and avoid making them feel guilty if they develop their own procedures.

Understanding of the trainees, helping them to understand themselves, encouraging them to choose subjects for discussion and participate in planning their own study and in evaluation help to reduce this possibility.

Rogers (188:464*ff.*) describes a sequence of three courses to which students are admitted in the second year of graduate work. The first course, principles of adjustment counseling, is regarded as an opportunity for the

student to formulate the basic issues and attitudes upon which he will build in therapeutic work. He is given the opportunity to assume responsibility for himself and the experience of being understood and accepted as he reacts both negatively and positively to the class.

Materials are made "psychologically" available. A shelf of reading materials is provided, including unpublished studies, which Rogers says help to give the student a "sense of knowledge in the making, of being a part of a cutting edge which extends into the future." Recordings are played in class but are also available for student use outside of class. Ample contact with staff therapists is provided. Personal therapy, observation, and class discussion are included.

This course is followed by two practicum courses which include role-playing, simple interviewing, counseling of each other, independent handling of cases and internships. The use of role-playing in preparing for problems of professional relationships is described: a situation in which a school administrator wants information about one of the counselor's student clients; the relationship with a superior who has a very different orientation toward counseling; the relationship with a social worker who wants him to put pressure on a client to get a job; the interpretation of what he is doing to other professional people who know little about therapy.

Vocational Information and Psychology of Vocations

Among the subjects of value in this area are: the American work scene; changes in our socioeconomic patterns; contributions made by all kinds of workers to society; appreciation of all kinds of workers and their jobs; the importance of job satisfaction to the individual; emotions as they affect productivity; personality as a factor in vocational choice and in productivity; the relationship of interests, abilities, special aptitudes to vocational choice; self-appraisal as it relates to vocational choice; curricula and work experiences in preparation for vocations; occupational trends in nation, state, and region; vocational rehabilitation; methods of making occupational information meaningful. A study of opportunities in the region might be made by the trainees. An examination of the curriculum to see if it is meeting the needs of the students might be made by the trainees. While knowledge of the characteristics of specific vocations is less important than an overview of the world of work, some acquaintance with this kind of information and *where to get it* would be of value. Films, visits to industries, conferences with industrial leaders would be suitable teaching devices.

This type of course work would be particularly useful to vocational and educational counselors, placement officers, rehabilitation workers among

disabled, etc., employment bureau staff, guidance workers in state department of education, teachers of classes in vocational orientation, industrial personnel workers, etc. Many high school and college counselors are expected to be familiar with vocational information. Students who have had training in vocational guidance and other types of personnel work as well as therapy are more easily placed in personnel positions than specialists.

Among the useful references on this subject are the following:

Baer, Max F., and E. C. Roeber, *Occupational Information: Its Nature and Use,* Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1951

Forrester, Gertrude, *Occupations: A Selected List of Pamphlets,* H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1946

Hoppock, Robert, *Group Guidance,* McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1949

Shartle, Carroll, *Occupational Information,* Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1946

Other Areas

Among other suggestions regarding the training of personnel workers is the possibility of including classes in curriculum construction and school administration. These courses help the personnel worker to see his role in the school system and to relate his work to other school services. Many personnel workers are in effect administrators as well. The lone counselor in the high school, the head of counseling services, director of student activities, director of student personnel, housing director, and dean of students participate in administration. Others soon learn that administrative procedures have a good deal to do with the success of the program, with the number and quality of referrals, with the spread of the personnel point of view, with the effectiveness of the orientation and advising programs, etc. The definition of authority, the delegation of authority along with responsibility, and other administrative principles work equally as well in personnel work as in other situations, and an understanding of them is an advantage to the personnel worker. Through some acquaintance with the subject of administration, the personnel worker gains insights into the problems of administration which may help him to adjust to the needs of the institution of which he is a part.

Training in administration is proposed by McQuitty (134:16–19) in his discussion of the role of the applied psychologist in the armed services. He remarks that in order for the psychologist to integrate his proposals into already established functions, he must know administration, tradition, policies, and plans. He advocates also combining psychological training with nonpsychological areas such as business and industry, engineering, eco-

nomics, etc., to expand the vocational opportunities for psychologists and provide trained workers for which there is a demand. Courses already offered by many colleges and universities could be combined in the suggested training program, but, as McQuitty points out, "most of them more or less leave the chance discovery of such a program up to the student's initiative."

The administration and organization of the student personnel program are suggested for counselors who will be responsible for coordinating the personnel program in the high school or college, directors of counseling bureaus, and prospective deans of students. Subtopics for study might be problems of coordination, scope of the program, integrating existing services, securing the cooperation of the faculty, relationship of various services to each other, suitable records and other means of communication between agencies and staff, referral processes, the advising program, orientation of new students, the role of the personnel worker in discipline, problems of group living, extra-class activities as a positive part of the student personnel program, the use of personnel methods in selecting and supervising staff, and evaluation techniques. For student personnel workers other than administrators, this type of class would present an overview of the program. It would also be a helpful course for school superintendents and high school and elementary school principals.

Procedures for follow-up work and the processes of evaluating student personnel work should be given attention. It would be desirable for the trainee to be able to read a report of a follow-up study and to identify implications for classroom procedures and curriculum revision, to recognize trends in incomplete studies, and at the same time to recognize the dangers of generalizing from insufficient data. Methods of translating statistical information into language understandable to coworkers and the public should be explored.

Study of the history of the guidance movement—the contributions of vocational guidance, social case work, mental hygiene, child guidance, clinical psychology, home-room programs and other group guidance programs—would help the student personnel worker to understand why he is doing what he is doing and the reasons for disagreement on the functions of personnel work. The beginnings of guidance work in England, France, Germany, and the United States, the development of organized guidance with relation to the U.S. Office of Education, state departments of education, and the state and local school where the trainee is studying would be appropriate subjects for study.

Study of remedial services offers possibilities for specialization. Methods in play therapy would be valuable to the child psychologist or child guidance worker.

Classes relating to student government and extra-class activities would be especially important to directors of activities, social programs, student-union activities, YMCA and YWCA secretaries, deans of students, and other personnel workers to help them understand these functions and their relation to the student personnel program.

No mention has been made of the biological sciences as training for personnel workers. There is considerable disagreement on the subject. Jacobsen (98:17) would make the biological and physical sciences a part of the undergraduate work of the clinical psychologist. He emphasizes that man is a biological organism attempting to adapt to the environment in which he lives. He would include zoology, general physiology, physics, chemistry, and mathematics, totaling forty-two hours.

On the other hand, Rogers (188:439) states:

As the writer considers the therapists he has known, there appears to be no correlation between successful achievement as a therapist and background in biological knowledge. Some of the best therapists have been well equipped with biological knowledge, but others equally outstanding have been remarkably innocent of training in this field. Likewise, among the least successful therapists the same statement could be made. Furthermore, it appears that the most successful therapists, from Freud on, even when equipped with biological and physiological training, make no more than infinitesimal use of it in their practice of psychotherapy. Many follow the definite policy that any organic problem, or the possibility of any organic problem, should be investigated and dealt with by someone who is not the therapist.

It may be that some knowledge of the human body might be helpful in identifying symptoms of physical illness or disability in order that the therapist will know when to refer the client to a physician or medical laboratory. Reference was made in Chapters 2 and 9 to various cases in which endocrine imbalance, eye defects, and other physical factors interfered with therapy or contra-indicated therapy.

Some Practical Considerations

The foregoing presentation of proposed areas for study might be considered entirely too elaborate by some authorities. Possibly it aims at the ideal rather than at the practical curriculum. Certainly many in the field have been doing a creditable job without the advantages of some of the prescribed training. Many of us, too, have learned some of the necessary skills and concepts through experience rather than in the classroom, although we are able to see the weaknesses in our own preparation.

If all classes discussed under the seven major areas (exclusive of duplications) were included in training, the total could be estimated to range from eighty to ninety credit hours, not including several valuable units

suggested in the discussion of other areas. Some of the suggested units of study would undoubtedly be included in undergraduate classes.

While the advantages of full training are obvious, we agree with Rogers (188:442), who asserts:

Training in psychotherapy exists in varying degrees. If the orientation is in the direction of a permissive and noncoercive therapy, then some training is better than none, more training is better than some. As to the time when such training might be given, some of its basic principles, as they apply to human relationships in general, might be taught at the high school or college level. For the person who is acquiring therapeutic skills as a part of his professional training, there seems every reason to provide this training as a part of his graduate education prior to his doctoral degree.

Students preparing for jobs such as psychometrists, clinical psychologists, elementary school counselors, court psychologists, research psychologists, occupational analysts, dormitory counselors, placement officers, or student-activity directors would of course vary their curricula according to their objectives. While some argue that a Ph.D. degree should be required in all areas of personnel work, many such positions are now occupied by people with M.A. and B.S. degrees.

The question, "Are psychologists without Ph.D. degrees to be barred from membership in the American Psychological Association?" is raised by Darley, Elliott, Hathaway, and Paterson (49:51ff.). The authors call attention to various levels of personnel work and question whether the requirement of a Ph.D. degree would be necessary or desirable in routine positions or in those for which psychologists are in short supply.

On the subject of necessary background knowledge for trainees, Rogers (188:435) states, "In our own courses, we have had students from the fields of education, theology, industrial relations, nursing, and students with inter-disciplinary training. It has been quite impossible to see any significant differences in the rate at which such students become therapists."

If the training program must be curtailed, still a balance should be maintained between the various major areas of study.

The importance of studies which aid in the understanding of personality, motivations, emotions, and the relationship of the individual to the group is sometimes overlooked. For example, a proposed curriculum for the certification of high school counselors included: advanced testing, counseling practices or internship, seminar in special guidance problems, seminar in occupational information, job analysis, follow-up studies, occupational surveys and placement procedures with practice in the field, organization and administration of guidance programs, organization of guidance programs for adults, statistical interpretations, social case-work

methods, industrial and labor relations, and vocational education (124:393). Without casting aspersions on any of the proposed units of study, the authors should like to point out that the proposed program of training is light in psychology and heavy in occupational information and organization.

The concept of the student personnel program should not be limited to any one service or any one aspect of the program. The history of the movement shows the development of various specialties—testing, child guidance, adult vocational guidance, psychiatry, clinical psychology, psychoanalysis, personal problem counseling, general group guidance, and others. It shows these specialties to have the same general objectives with considerable difference in procedures and means. Present-day practices are a blending and fusing of contributions from many areas. The joint meeting of four of the major guidance organizations of the nation is evidence of developing coordination in the field. The Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, meeting in Chicago in March, 1948, included the Alliance for the Guidance of Rural Youth, the American College Personnel Association, National Association of Deans of Women, and National Vocational Guidance Association.

Selection of Trainees

The foremost consideration in screening candidates for training in counseling and personnel work seems to be the philosophy and attitudes of the candidate. On this subject, Rogers (188:436) says, "It would seem that the orientation to personal relationships with which they enter a training program is more important than the specific course work they have had or the scientific knowledge they possess." Hahn and MacLean (86:16) place personality third as a basis for selection, "Many a counselee will open up his difficulty wide and deep in a single conference if the counselor has the personal characteristics of warmth, receptivity, objectivity, understanding and tolerance." Of the counselor, Strang (219:3) states:

If he has learned to live with himself and accept himself, he is more likely to accept other persons. If he is emotionally mature and feels fairly secure in his social and professional relations, he is able to convey a certain sense of confidence to the counselee. . . . He has genuinely kind feeling toward people. He understands, respects, and accepts them. Like Walt Whitman, he has a deep sense of the worthiness of all human beings. He looks for the good in them.

The following additional criteria stated by the American Psychological Association (11:539ff.) for the selection of clinical psychologists might apply to the selection of all personnel workers:

"1. Superior intellectual ability and judgment.
"2. Originality, resourcefulness and versatility.

"3. 'Fresh and insatiable' curiosity; 'self-learner.'

"4. Interest in persons as individuals rather than as material for manipulation —a regard for the integrity of other persons.

"5. Insight into own personality characteristics; sense of humor.

"6. Sensitivity to the complexities of motivation.

"7. Tolerance: 'unarrogance.'

"8. Ability to adopt a 'therapeutic' attitude; ability to establish warm and effective relationships with others.

"9. Industry; methodical work habits; ability to tolerate pressure.

"10. Acceptance of responsibility.

"11. Tact and cooperativeness.

"12. Integrity, self-control, and stability.

"13. Discriminating sense of ethical values.

"14. Breadth of cultural background—'educated man.'

"15. Deep interest in psychology, especially in its clinical aspects."

Observation, interviews, and some types of measurement might be used in evaluating the degree to which students meet the above criteria. Hahn and MacLean (86:16) suggest the "cautious use of such instruments as the Strong Vocational Interest Blank, plus the statement of the candidate and the composite interview impression of the selection staff," as the chief methods of measuring interests, motivations, attitudes, and persistence which will lead him to a personally satisfying goal in professional counseling. The Minnesota Teacher Attitude Scale appears to have possibilities for measuring the ability of a candidate to establish a warm relationship with a client (238).

The possibility of rating the candidate on attitudes toward the client during a pseudo-counseling interview is suggested by the results of the training experiment with VA counselors (188:444ff.).

Comparing the initial interview with a second pseudo-counseling interview following partial training might yield information regarding the trainee's ability to modify his attitudes in the direction of warmth, acceptance, permissiveness, and respect for individual worth. Hahn and MacLean (86:15) call attention to the practice in some universities of requiring a probationary period for candidates. The possibility that self-selection may take place during the early part of training is suggested by Rogers (188:434).

The Graduate Record Examination and the Miller Analogies, Form G, are mentioned by Hahn and MacLean (86:15) as useful in making decisions regarding the prospective trainee's academic potentialities. Past academic performance is also discussed as a means of estimating ability.

With regard to the selection of students to be trained for personnel work, Williamson (257:59) warns, "this proposed training program assumes that students preparing for this work have been carefully selected and

counseled by personnel methods. For teachers of personnel workers to select such students by the slipshod methods in general use would be a strange anomaly."

Summary

The kinds of subject matter and experiences for training counselors and student personnel workers are classified under seven areas: understanding the human personality, philosophy and social responsibility, measurement, group methods, counseling and personnel methods, supervised practice, and vocational information. The study of the human personality covers a broad field, including personality dynamics and origins, psychology of learning, and the views and theories of various leaders who have contributed to this area of study. Courses which help in the understanding of our complex society and the development of a personal philosophy of life are recommended. Measurement is regarded as an aid to understanding the individual, although emphasis is placed on its limitations. Knowledge of the group process and group dynamics, commonly neglected, is useful to every personnel worker. Study of principles and methods of counseling and supervised experience in personnel work are indispensable.

Also suggested are classes in school and personnel administration, history of the guidance movement, remedial services, play therapy, student government, and extra-class activities.

The attitudes of teachers and supervisors toward the trainee and their belief in the potentialities of the trainee affect the degree to which he is able to incorporate into his own habit patterns and attitudes the necessary warmth, permissiveness, and acceptance of others. Teachers should avoid giving the impression of "oughtness" with regard to a particular brand of therapy.

If the training program must be curtailed for practical reasons, a balance should be maintained among the seven major areas. Some personnel services can be given with less than Ph.D. training.

Criteria for the selection of candidates include: philosophy and attitudes of the candidate, emotional maturity, ability to modify attitudes, and intellectual capacity. Devices for evaluating candidates include observation, interviews, opinions of selection committee, psychological measurement, review of past academic performance, and rating the candidate on demonstrated ability to adopt a warm, accepting attitude toward the client. Also mentioned are the possibility of a probationary period and self-selection during early training. More research is needed to perfect screening methods.

CHAPTER 14   *Administration of the Student*
            Personnel Program

References have already been made to the disadvantages of uncoordinated student personnel services: duplication of services; lack of balance in the program and omissions of needed services; breakdown in communication among student personnel staff members and between personnel officers and other divisions of the school; vague definition of responsibilities; and confusion in the minds of the students. When authority and responsibility are loosely defined, problems arrive at the desk of the school superintendent or college president which might be assumed to belong to some member of the student personnel staff. Complaints, discipline problems, cases of maladjustment, questions regarding limits of authority and responsibility, conflicts between staff members, and other matters may take his time and attention from policy making and larger administrative decisions. With his eye on the expenditures for personnel services, the administrator may feel that these chronic irritations are an indication that the institution is not getting its money's worth. When numerous specialists are employed and made responsible directly to the top administration, competition arises for budgetary and other favors. Another danger is that even the personnel worker may lose sight of the student as a whole being, and the various services contribute to his fragmentation into separate compartments for testing, socialization, educational advisement, discipline, etc.

"With the growth on all campuses of so many different advisory services, a real danger exists that the student may be overweighted and bewildered by counsel from all directions, unless these various services are coordinated through a single administrative officer or central agency," according to a statement by the Committee on Personnel Work of the American Council on Education (8:55).

An example of duplicate services comes to mind. Two offices of a similar nature were being operated in the same college. A student who had

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already been tested in one office might be routed later to the other office, where he was given some of the identical tests and treated to the same routine of preliminary interview, filling out personal data forms, etc. Two complete records existed on each of a number of students. When the program is coordinated, the student's time and the college facilities are used more efficiently.

A centralized program facilitates referral. All staff will be acquainted with available services. A student may go for help in making a vocational choice when his real problem is an emotional one. When rival agencies or only scattered services exist, it may not occur to the counselor to refer the student for help to another agency.

"Most student personnel programs of pre-war and war days have suffered through lack of proper structure and planning, because independent departments and agencies have been unaccustomed to think of themselves as components of a larger whole" (10:84). Through coordination of personnel services, attention can be focused on the educational goals of the institution.

The coordination of personnel services under an administrator or a committee under one person's leadership was recommended by group five of the National Conference on Higher Education in 1949 (155).

Fragmentary Programs. The personnel program is relatively new in the history of the educational system and it has developed in so many different ways that the program in one school or subdivision of the school may appear to have little relation to the services in another. Any fragment of a program, a testing program, a local job survey, a treatment for failing students, or a class in occupational information may be labeled guidance or student personnel work.

Several separate personnel services may be found in the same school system, each working independently of the other, or they may exist in name only. The arts college may have its own program, unaffiliated with the general program. The college counseling bureau may be a part of the education school, while the rest of the program may be administered by the dean of students.

In the public school, the remedial reading teacher, visiting teacher, school nurse, and social worker may have little opportunity to exchange information and ideas. Problems of accelerating students, attendance, retention, failures, and placement of students in the curriculum are often treated as unrelated to each other.

Sometimes the student personnel program develops as a result of the interest of a faculty member. Sometimes the initial steps are taken voluntarily by a staff member in his spare time, according to his concept of the work. The originator of one type of program may be steeped in voca-

tional guidance and his efforts may be restricted to giving occupational information. The clinical psychologist sees the need of help for emotionally disturbed students, and he founds a service for this purpose. The program of the educational psychologist may revolve around tests and measures. Thus, the program may become attached to the psychology department, the education department, the committee on recommendations, the YWCA, or even the physical education department or the commerce department, depending on who is most interested and willing to take the initiative. Many school administrators in small systems have initiated guidance and personnel programs in which they may involve the whole staff or which they may carry on alone.

The professional personnel worker who wishes to develop a balanced program finds his point of departure in the previous efforts of amateurs, but he sometimes finds that a limited definition of the term "student personnel work" prevails.

What shall be included in the complete program? There is no exclusively right plan. The needs of the small high school are not the same as the demands of the large university. The scientific technical college may not be able to use the exact blueprint of the liberal arts college.

Steps toward Coordination. As has been indicated in Chapters 11 and 12, a beginning might be made with a study of the existing program. These questions arise:

What services are already given?
Is there a duplication of services?
Are important services lacking?
Do we have the information we need to understand and help the students?
Is all available information being used where it is needed?
Do students know where to go for help; do faculty members know where to send them?
Do the various personnel staff members understand the extent and limits of their responsibilities? Do they meet to discuss matters of mutual concern?
Is authority delegated with responsibility?
Who should be responsible for leadership in coordinating existing services?
If new services need to be added, where shall we begin?

The coordination of services would seem to require leadership from trained student personnel workers and the centralization of responsibility in one person or agency. In the high school, the coordinator may be a vice-principal or assistant principal in charge of student personnel services. In the college, the dean of students or director of student personnel may assume this responsibility. Another plan provides for a central committee or council of the heads of student personnel departments, or a board composed of personnel workers, students, and faculty representatives,

which serves in a policy-making or coordinating capacity. A combination of advisory board plus personnel administrator is another variation. Boards and committees are more effective in advisory, policy, quasi-legislative, or quasi-judicial capacities than in purely administrative work. Some one person must be held accountable for carrying out the policy outlined by the committee or board. Decisions can be made by the administrator in terms of established policy, but every decision cannot be referred to the board.

The desirability of centralizing personnel services is implied in Walters's (250:96) answer to the question, "Why have a personnel department?" He replies:

"1. It centralizes the responsibility for the performance of personnel services, and coordinates the different personnel functions.

"2. It aids and sponsors decentralized personnel work.

"3. It fills a need which the teachers are not able to supply because of individual specialization and increased load of teaching.

"4. It broadens the teacher's and student's contacts.

"5. It renders personnel service to the end of the highest possible development of each student as a complete individual.

"6. It considers all phases of the student's development—mental, physical, moral, and social.

"7. It not only collects complete personnel information but also disseminates it where it can be used for the benefit of the student.

"8. It emphasizes intentional personal study and development of the student.

"9. It aids in placing the student in employment where he will use his ability to the greatest advantage to himself and his school."

Principles of Organization. While the plan of organization should grow out of the needs of the school and available resources, certain principles can be helpful in guiding the planners.

1. Faculty members, administrators, and students should share in the planning and should continue to serve in an advisory capacity to the student personnel administrator.

This statement is made in the American Council on Education brochure, *The Student Personnel Point of View* (9:17):

Students can make significant contributions to the development and maintenance of effective personnel programs through contributing evaluations of the quality of the services, new ideas for changes in the services, and fresh impetus to staff members who may become immersed in techniques and the technicalities of the professional side of personnel work.

In addition to the use of advisory student councils and committees for reviewing programs and policies, personnel administrators and specialists should avail themselves frequently of opportunities for informal consultation with many individual students.

According to the brochure, *Student Personnel Work in the Postwar College* (10:86):

The instructional faculty should be well represented in any committee appointed to assist or advise in the review and coordination of the program. The faculty as a whole should be kept informed of developments and progress in student personnel areas, and critical comment from them should be encouraged at all times.

Otherwise the personnel services may remain isolated and out of tune with the educational program. This discussion puts the responsibility for integration on the student personnel workers.

2. Personnel data about students should be readily available, in usable form, and easily exchanged between cooperating agencies, to prevent wasted effort and money and to afford the most effective service to students.

3. Channels for communication should be established between all cooperating agencies, in the exchange not only of data, but of ideas and viewpoints; not only from the personnel staff to others, but in both directions; not only from the top down, but from staff members, students, and faculty to administrators. Regular meetings for the discussion of common problems and planning interrelated programs of services are recommended in the brochure, *The Student Personnel Point of View* (9:17). "Experience indicates that not only information, but also feelings, always important in cooperative undertakings and other types of human relations, can best be transmitted in such face-to-face situations, and in well-planned and executed staff discussions of common problems and cooperative enterprises." Better results may result from group planning than from the efforts of any single staff member, according to the opinion of the committee.

4. A balanced staff of specialists should be secured, if possible, in order that help will be available for treating the variety of student problems. Group methods, deep therapy, general counseling, remedial reading, leadership for student activities, and psychological measurement are among the areas which should not be neglected. Some duties may be combined. In planning the program, it should not be overlooked that psychotherapy consumes considerable time. Provision should be made for counseling services in terms of a reasonable case load. Agreement should be reached on the areas of responsibility of each member. Although the limits should not be rigid, each should know the function for which he is responsible. If limits of responsibility are too vaguely defined, students and faculty members will not know where to find help, and either duplication or neglect of some services will result.

5. Research should be the basis for policy making. It should cover the nature of the individual, the nature of his environment, the characteristics

of the student population, and an evaluation of existing services. It should be carried on in cooperation with the faculty and students, and the faculty and administration should be informed of results.

6. Financial provision should be made for the personnel program.

7. Authority and responsibility should be centralized in the hands of some agency or person, in order that decisions can be made rapidly, if necessary, that leadership can be exercised between meetings of the staff and faculty, and that the wishes of the faculty and students can be carried out with efficiency and dispatch.

8. Authority should be as clearly defined as responsibility. Actually, the only authority the student personnel administrator has is that which is given to him by his staff, students, and cooperating faculty members, but it should be made clear in what areas he is free to act without consulting the staff and faculty and in what situations it would be necessary for him to have the power to act for reasons of efficiency. The student personnel administrator should have rank equivalent to other administrators with equivalent responsibility. Whoever is responsible for leadership in the program should represent the student personnel program at meetings of top administrators, in order that the knowledge necessary to understanding the program be available to the over-all administrative council, that the students' point of view can be represented, and that at least one person be present who can see the student as a whole being. It is easier for department heads and academic deans to concentrate on the matters which concern their own programs than to regard the school as a whole. The student personnel administrator should be able to present an overview of the whole educational program and to relate vocational, academic, social, and group-living aspects to each other. Responsibility must be accompanied by equal authority and facilities.

Some fundamental assumptions stated by Strozier (222) can be used as a guide for the organization of student personnel services:

1. The aim and destiny of the institution is already defined and understood.

2. The office of the dean of students is an integral part of the over-all administration.

3. Services offered to the student by the institution will be coordinated by the dean of students.

4. Academic and business administrations of the school utilize the office of the dean of students for all nonregularized contacts with students. (Nonregularized contacts would include anything not handled in the classroom, by printed announcements, or at a teller's window.)

Use of Personnel Methods in Administration. The personnel administrator needs to be aware of the efficacy of personnel methods when applied

to his relationships with his staff and his colleagues. The personnel administrator advocates the personnel point of view for working with students but too often fails to apply it to contacts with staff and others. Hiring staff members according to personnel data, treating the individual staff member or faculty member with respect, understanding and accepting the feelings of the individual—these practices help to advance the program.

Democratic Administration. The use of democratic methods in administering the personnel program does not eliminate authority. Authority is not maintained by dictatorial practices. Democratic procedures enhance authority, because confidence and trust in the leader are increased. Dynamic leadership provokes activity and initiative among the staff members. Autocratic methods of administration indicate that the administrator is afraid he cannot handle the situation and that he lacks confidence in his staff. Democratic leadership will be reflected in the methods which staff members will use in handling students and thus in student attitudes. When the administrator uses autocratic methods, he will find that staff members compete for his favorable attention. Petty jealousies will grow up, and morale will be corrupted.

The student personnel administrator will be tempted, as are all chairmen, presidents, and leaders of all sorts, to save time by making decisions himself. It often seems a waste of time and nervous energy to submit a question to a group when the leader feels sure he has all the answers himself, and the outcome of wrangling and debate will probably coincide with the decision he already believes to be best. However, actually, the administrator does not save a minute by autocratic methods. Time spent in a well-planned group meeting is saved many times over by the resulting cooperation, good will, and initiative stimulated by truly democratic methods.

With regard to personnel administration, Lloyd-Jones [1] says, "It is time now, it seems to me, to develop new and more democratic patterns of personnel work. This pattern would be characterized by cooperative planning rather than by superimposed directions. It would be characterized by integrative rather than dominative relationships."

Principles of mental hygiene should be applied to the student personnel staff as well as to students. The staff member develops best in an atmosphere of confidence and acceptance. He needs to feel that he is free to voice his opinions and that he is making a contribution. The staff member should feel that the administrator is concerned about his welfare and

[1] Lloyd-Jones, Esther, "Personnel Administration in Relation to Problems of Women," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, pp. 378ff.

progress. He should feel that he is more than an extension of the administrator's hands and that he has worth as a person.

The objectives of the total program should be discussed in a staff meeting of all members. All jobs should be discussed and the staff given an opportunity to suggest how they might be done. Decisions regarding policy and many others should be made in general meetings of the personnel staff members. One of the desirable outcomes is that staff members become familiar with problems and pressures harassing the administrator.

In an atmosphere of mutual respect and confidence, as the needs of the students and faculty members become apparent, a staff member may voluntarily inaugurate such services as a human relations clinic, therapy groups, self-exploratory groups, research on retention, failing students, selection practices, or whatever project appeals to him as particularly needed or as having fertile possibilities.

Provision should be made for individual contacts between the personnel administrator and other workers in order that the staff member will not feel that he is being overlooked or that his contribution is insignificant and in order that his attitudes and suggestions can be communicated to the head of the program.

Involving the faculty in administration is discussed by Moskowitz (143:133*ff.*), who describes a program of democratic leadership which operates in New York City teacher-councils. He says, "Without abdicating their responsibilities for leadership and guidance, principals should be ever mindful of the fact that their chief task is to mould their staff into a working team." He says that despite objections, the practice of teacher-councils is increasing.

The Counseling Center of the University of Chicago is an example of an agency where democratic principles have been employed in administration (84:166). "Carl R. Rogers serves as the Executive Secretary of the governing board, but three coordinators—Administrative, Professional Services, and Research—are chiefly responsible for the functioning of the Center. Nominations for the coordinator positions are made by all professional staff members, and new choices are made yearly if the staff so desires." Questions of policy are brought before the staff meetings. Lloyd-Jones [2] describes a similar type of organization.

An explanation of how concepts of educational administration developed in this country is given in the American Association of School Administrators Twenty-fifth Yearbook (7:157*ff.*).

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[2] Lloyd-Jones, Esther, "Personnel Administration in Relation to Problems of Women," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 379.

Up until recently the tradition in educational administration has been authoritarian. This situation has been due to a number of factors. When our public school system was being established in the middle of the nineteenth century, its character was greatly influenced by education in Germany where the avowed purpose was not the production of self-directive citizens, but of "God-fearing, self-supporting, country-loving subjects of Imperial Germany." As a consequence of this and other factors, the military "line and staff" organization came to dominate our schools. Under this theory, orders came from the authorities. Teachers, and in turn pupils, did as they were told. There was little room for teacher initiative, for the school was to develop according to the administrator's purposes.

For years this situation was satisfactory to both administrators and teachers: to administrators because there is ego satisfaction in telling others what to do and in having others work to carry out one's own ideas; to teachers because it is rather comfortable to do merely as one is told and not have to discover and to think through problems.

The present realization that this tradition can no longer persist if the school is to meet its responsibilities has its basis in the study of the purposes of education in a democracy. Children cannot be treated as "subjects" throughout their school life and then become free, participating, social-minded citizens on the day following graduation. Nor can the teacher most effectively help them to become such citizens unless he too can operate in a democratic environment.

For best results in achieving the implied personal power and social growth, teachers as well as pupils must have the opportunity of working on problems of concern to them, for in such situations energies are released and real learning takes place. In fact, until teachers have had the experience of working in such an environment, they will not likely have either the background or attitudes for democratically working with children. Even though they did, they would still be hampered by lack of freedom to meet pupil challenges in other than the prescribed manner.

The authors warn that it takes time to convert from authoritarian to democratic procedures. Teachers and counselors must get used to the idea that the leader wants their ideas instead of blind loyalty to his own, and they must become accustomed to taking responsibility.

Interpersonal Relations As They Affect Administration. With regard to the relationship of the personnel staff with other teachers and administrators, the same attitudes of respect and permissiveness are productive. Communication with the faculty and department heads is facilitated not only by group meetings, but by personal interviews in which *each learns about the program and aims of the other.*

The top administrators of an institution meet many conflicting demands and may not have the time for an intensive study of the personnel program. It is to the advantage of the program for members of the personnel staff to keep administrators informed regarding the results and workings of

the system by means of periodic reports, appointments, informal memoranda, and meetings to which they are invited.

Personal contacts with faculty members and administrators are often neglected. Consequently they may not understand thoroughly what kind of service is available to them and their students. If not, referrals lag, students who need counseling never reach their advisers or the counseling office, and support is lacking for measures to implement the program. The dean of students in a large Middle Western university designates a half day each week for every professional personnel worker to call on some faculty member or administrator to discuss the program and its relationship to other departments and to find out more about the department and the work of the person visited. These proposed interviews are time-consuming, but they are productive of good will and support. Too often the contact is delayed until a crisis arises and the negative aspects of the meeting are predominant.

A great many factors enter into the relationship between the personnel worker and the faculty. One of these elements may be the role he plays in the committee structure. The liberal tendencies of the average personnel worker may result in his placement on every committee which proposes a change in curriculum, organization, traffic rules, retirement policy, etc. While he should contribute his share of time on questions relating to the general welfare, he must remember that he cannot do everything which is worth doing. Any proposed change threatens the status of some faculty member or administrator. Too many assignments of this nature may lend support to the belief that the personnel staff is a bunch of radicals who want to revolutionize the whole institution. Hostility and resistance may then develop toward the program and the administrative arrangements necessary for its efficient operation.

The needed changes undoubtedly will not come about all at once. Placing the head of the health department, registrar, attendance officer, social worker, or visiting teacher on the personnel staff may be vigorously resisted by these officials. Making changes in registration processes, daily schedules, records, and areas of responsibility involves changes in attitudes as well as the assimilation of relevant information.

Changes in registration processes may require the faculty members to return to the campus at an earlier time than is their custom, cause later opening of classes, the purchasing of business machines, rescheduling of traditional events, and the like. If the changes are made by administrative edict, without faculty support, the intended benefits may be sabotaged by adverse committee decisions and by a lack of cooperation.

Personnel Methods and the Enrollment Process. Very often the operation of the student personnel program requires changes in registration

procedures in order that advisers and students may have time to make use of case data and test results in choice of curriculum and classes. Faculty members who cooperate in assignment of students to classes and in planning orientation processes may need an explanation of the amount of time required to score, record, and distribute test data. If this information is lacking or if faculty members and officials are not committed to the goals of the program, the orientation committee, for example, may plan a shortened orientation week which creates an impossible situation for the clerical staff. Decisions regarding enrollment and assignment, if made without the advice of personnel workers, may result in haphazard enrollment without the benefit of relevant data which may be available at a later date or which are neglected in hasty mass processing.

The importance of administrative decisions and plans to the efficient use of personnel data can be illustrated by a high school teacher's somewhat exaggerated version of enrollment.[3]

In view of my lowly position, many of the inner mysteries of the sacred rite known as scheduling are hidden from me. These dark and devious practices, which are usually performed during the summer months and the evil results of which usually become apparent about the fourth week of the first semester, are the sacred prerogatives of that rarefied group known as principal, assistant principals, and the "girls in the office." There is always, too, some sort of gremlin involved in the process—the thing that mixes up the cards in some way, so that Jimmy Jones enters the last semester of his senior year with less credits than he had when he entered, or assigns Mary Smith to a full afternoon of Machine Shop 2 instead of Sewing 4. This critter has never been seen or identified, but we know he's there. The anguished cries of parents two weeks before commencement and the long lines of tired kids outside the principal's office the first three weeks of school attest to his ghoulish presence.

The process is further described:

First step—Ask students how many credits they had at the beginning of the year. Three percent know; 5 percent think they know; 92 percent don't know. Therefore, they are asked to find out before the next day. Next day only 90 percent don't know how many credits they have. After fifteen days of the allotted week, in which the teacher-counselor is expected to make the schedules, has expired, he has this information.

Second Step—Explain sequence requirement to pupils. This is a fiendish arrangement that practically requires a student to stick to the course set for him in the tenth grade. A "solid" must be taken two years in order to get a "sequence." Nine of the thirteen credits required by the state for graduation must be in sequence, and there must be one three-year sequence. As explaining all this to pupils is hopeless, it is usually skipped.

[3] Strang, Ruth, *Educational Guidance, Its Principles and Practice,* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, pp. 85ff.

Third Step—Have pupils fill in little mimeographed slips telling what they expect to take next semester. Make notes on slips, such as "We are not offering this course any more," or "You can't take such and such a subject before you take such and such a subject," or "This schedule won't let you graduate for five years." Give slips to pupils to take home for parents' approval. Results: 2 percent of parents approve schedule; 2 percent won't approve; 96 percent of slips are mislaid on the way home. Three more weeks pass while this is being cleared up.

Fourth Step—When schedule is made up, it is copied on permanent schedule card, with tally sheet showing how many pupils are signed up for various subjects. This is sent to the office.

Fifth Step—Office bureaucrats pile cards in neat piles, shuffle them, deal out six hands and say, "Number 1 hand takes English the second period, Number 2 hand takes it third period, and so on." Office is closed and locked during this procedure, and no one can get in, so this step is reported only from hearsay. However, in view of the results obtained, this is the only way this part of the process could be done.

Sixth Step—Pupils line up outside principal's door first two weeks of new semester asking for schedule revision. Three pupils do not line up. The other 1,997 are there. Principal is discovered to be attending a two week's conference.

Seventh Step—1,997 pupils line up outside assistant principal's door. He makes out new schedules for all of them and then goes to bed for thirteen days.

Eighth Step—Pupils lose schedule slips and go to the teachers they like.

Problems of Reorganization. Problems which arise in the process of reorganization can be illustrated by a discussion of the role of the college dean of women or high school dean of girls. While the office appears logically to belong in the student personnel system, there are many complicating factors of status, definition of relationships, and emotional involvement.

The dean of women, who may have been previously responsible directly to the president of the college or to the high school principal, may resist reorganization which makes her responsible to a director of student personnel or dean of students. The change may appear to her to be in the nature of a demotion. She may feel that direct communication with top administration is necessary to the execution of her duties and that representation of women's problems and desires will be neglected.

Lloyd-Jones [4] calls attention to the concern expressed by groups of professional women over the fact that women personnel officers are seemingly being eliminated from executive councils and policy-making positions in colleges and campuses. She also cites instances of young men who resented serving under able women administrators.

Various questions arise in connection with this issue:

[4] Lloyd-Jones, Esther, "Personnel Administration in Relation to Problems of Women," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work* (258), University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 376.

1. Is the balance of representation distorted when women are not represented on administrative committees?

2. Do the gains of coordination outweigh seeming disadvantages?

3. Is the question one of interpersonal relations rather than one of administrative principle?

One solution which has been proposed is that of making the dean of women associate dean of students or associate director of student personnel with duties relating to the whole program. It would seem to us that the personnel administrator might be either a man or woman, depending entirely on merit, ability, and experience. For example, an able woman of our acquaintance, serving as codirector of a counseling bureau, has been exceedingly successful in smoothing out internal administrative difficulties.

Representation on administrative councils by more than one personnel staff member might appear to other council members to distort the balance of representation. Furthermore, the head of the student personnel program who is adequately trained might be expected to regard both men and women students as "people" and to be concerned for the welfare of both.

Women department heads, deans, and faculty members are usually included on such administrative bodies as the faculty senate, the orientation, student affairs, discipline, academic honesty, and registration committees, and others. This would seem to ensure that their point of view will be represented.

The problem has been aggravated by the traditional concept of the dean of women or dean of girls as a custodial, authoritarian, or disciplinary officer. The expanded definition of her function to include educational aspects made additional training necessary and required a revision of beliefs and attitudes. The change demanded a personality reorganization which, for some, was impossible. However, as women become trained in student personnel methods, fewer problems of this nature should arise.

It is true that able women are not always recognized by advances in rank and salary as rapidly as men. The situation puts them on the defensive and complicates interpersonal relations. But the problem is a general one, not confined to the student personnel profession.

One of the persistent problems is that a large proportion of professionally trained women do not complete their training or remain active in their own professions. The increased enrollment of married women in colleges and the marriage of others after a few years of service deplete the supply of trained women in most professions. The dean of the school of home economics in one college reported in 1951 that although she had a large senior class, only five women planned to go to work in a vocation where opportunities far outnumbered the supply of graduates.

The measures which seem to be practical are these:

1. Recognize the emotional involvement in the resistance of the dean of women.

2. Recognize and promote women personnel workers according to merit.

3. Try to maintain a balanced staff, including both men and women.

4. Be sure that the head of the program is acquainted with the point of view of all staff members and with the needs of students of both sexes.

5. Include all staff members, both men and women, in policy-making decisions.

6. Give women staff members responsibilities relating to the welfare of the entire program, not those confined exclusively to women's affairs.

Establishing an educational program in the dormitories may involve changes in responsibilities of the dormitory counselor, housing director, and comptroller which may be vigorously resisted. They may feel that their authority and efficiency are questioned and that the new setup will interfere with the discharge of their duties. The personnel worker is required not only to work out practical routine and structure, but to exercise skill in these interpersonal relations.

High School Organization

The development of the personnel program may depend, in the small school, on the interest and active promotion of the principal or in a very small school on the initiative of the superintendent. Or the program may get its start from the efforts of one teacher who is partially trained for the work and who might be relieved of part of her teaching load to give time to individual work with students. In any case, the counsel of all staff members should be sought in planning and executing the program.

The support of the administrator in the small school is very important. He can allow time for relevant discussion in faculty meeting, arrange for entrance testing, rearrange the daily schedule to include appropriate activities, and help to coordinate activities. He is often the sponsor of the student council and can give the students information about the program. He can help to acquaint the public and the school board with the nature of the program.

He can include among his graduate classes some courses in student personnel work and encourage other staff members to do the same. He can secure professional literature on the subject and perhaps the services of experts in the field to speak to the faculty, the school board, the student body, or the parent-teacher association and assist with workshops. It may be possible for him to arrange with the board of education to pay the expenses of teachers to regional workshops or conferences on the subject.

Williamson and Hahn (262:79) say the school administrator is still the real director of guidance activities and is principally responsible for that

part of the program, as all others, to the superintendent, board of education, and the public.[5] Many responsibilities, however, can be delegated to a faculty committee on guidance, director of guidance, vice-principal, or deans of boys and girls.

Froelich (76:5) discussed the advantages of the small school, where the whole faculty can engage in discussion and function efficiently as a committee of the whole. He says this makes for real understanding by all faculty members; the personnel program can develop the support it needs; the population of the small school is relatively stable; faculty members can know students well and students know their teachers; there are close ties with the community. Many of the teachers in small schools are young and have had recent training, probably including some guidance courses. Young faculty members can remember their own problems and realize their seriousness to the students.
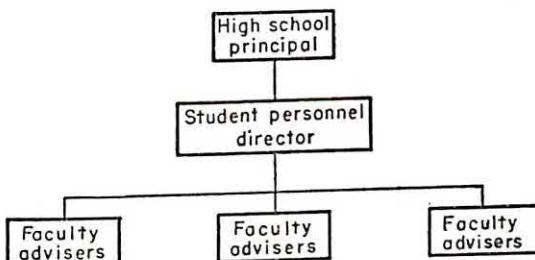
FIG. 8. Administrative structure of student personnel program in a small high school.

The plan of organization in the small school would, of course, be simple, as shown in Fig. 8.

In the larger high school, or junior high school, a number of services may have been given for some time before the program is coordinated. Personnel functions may be performed by the school nurse, visiting teacher, social workers, deans of boys and girls, sponsor of the student council, home-room sponsors, and others. Teachers of remedial speech and remedial reading, visiting teacher, school nurse, and possibly a psychiatrist may spend only part of the day or week at the school and thus be responsible to several school principals. Personnel functions relating to attendance, admissions, and enrollment may be performed by the principal or members of his staff. Orientation of new students may be a joint function of the high school or junior high school administrators with the principals of lower schools. Testing and diagnosis may be centered in a child-study department which serves several schools.

It seems probable that these various staff members would benefit by

[5] See also M. Hahn, in *School Review*, 47, May, 1939, p. 374.

meeting together to discuss their various functions and how they might help each other. Discussion of common problems with the faculty also seems desirable.

A discussion of symptoms of maladjustment may help the home-room sponsor or classroom teacher to recognize when a pupil needs to be counseled. The visiting teacher or social worker or school nurse may have the information which will help the classroom teacher to understand a troublesome child. Problems of attendance and retention may point up a weak spot in curriculum or methods of teaching. Discussions of group methods and group therapy may stimulate improvement in teaching methods.

The classroom teacher who regards remedial reading as interruption in her daily schedule may discover that it can help her solve some of her teaching problems. Referrals to service agencies can be encouraged. Meetings of home-room sponsors with student personnel workers would be profitable.
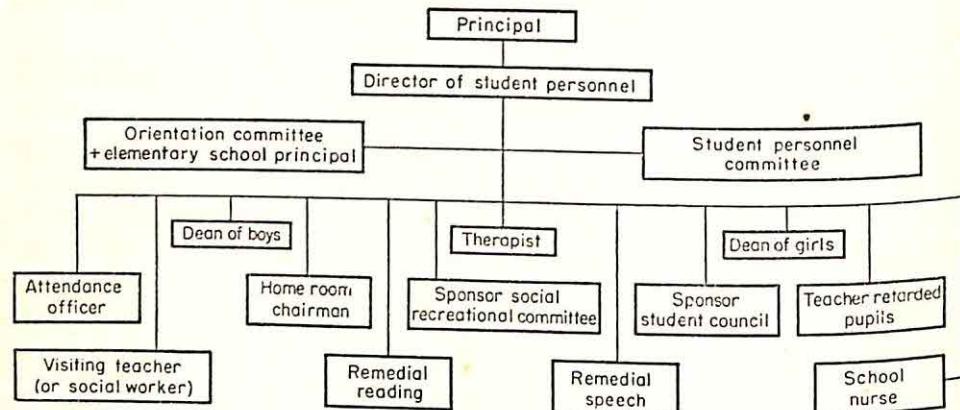
Fig. 9. Administrative structure of student personnel program in a large high school.

Figure 9 might be a guide to organizing personnel services in the large high school or junior high school.

Additional services mentioned by Munson (149) in his report of the Lansing, Michigan, school program included a centralized placement service; a survey of job opportunities in the community; a system of progressive promotion; and a part-time continuation school coordinated with the guidance, attendance, and working-permit departments.

Some of the services might be combined, depending on the scope of the program and the kinds of training and experience of the various staff members. The deans of boys and girls might be therapists. They might teach in addition to their duties, or their responsibilities might be given to one person in a small school. The director of student personnel might

counsel serious cases of maladjustment. If the deans of boys and girls are accustomed to administering the social program, they would probably have fewer counseling duties. The responsibilities of the various staff members could be defined before adding staff members and the gaps filled, according to what additional services would be needed.

If part-time specialists are members of the staff, the leader of the group will need to consider the amount of time which they can give to meetings and staff conferences. He will also find it practical to confer with the principals of other schools who are served by the same workers.

Trends in guidance toward cooperation between specialists and teachers and toward making guidance an all-faculty function are discussed by Traxler (241:14*ff*.). He also notes increasing cooperation between guidance services and the home and other agencies and between remedial work and guidance. Among other trends he mentions improved techniques in the appraisal of personal qualities and more adequate training of teachers and personnel workers.

Some insights into high school guidance practices may be gained from the following data.

A 1950 report of guidance practices in three- and four-year high schools in California reveals that 86 reported the employment of a guidance officer; 48 had directors of guidance; in 2 schools the principal did the work; in 20 the work was done by two or more people. Home rooms were reported in more than half the schools but few used them for guidance purposes; 88 assigned students to counselors; most of the schools distributed a guidance handbook and offered an orientation course. Most of the schools held regular guidance meetings in addition to faculty meetings. In the majority of schools, the officer in charge of student government was a teacher who was released for one or two periods from teaching duties (33:143*ff*.).

An inquiry was sent regarding guidance programs in 1938 to all high schools with 100 pupils or fewer that are accredited by the University of Michigan (111:94*ff*.). In the 90 per cent that replied 75.8 per cent of the superintendents were attempting some form of guidance, although only 56 per cent had studied it; in 12 schools where the superintendent lacked training, some teachers had been exposed to the work. Most schools assumed that individual help was available since the schools were small. Individual counseling was reported in 22.2 per cent of the schools; guidance courses in 14.5 per cent; use of standardized tests in 7.2 per cent; cumulative records in 2.2 per cent; talks by townspeople for vocational guidance, 6.1 per cent.

The need for improved personnel services in the high school and elementary school is even greater than in the college, because of the proportion of pupils who never reach higher institutions of learning, because the

lag is greater in the lower schools, and because of the effectiveness of early attention to problems of personal adjustment and educational and vocational choice. The need for personnel services in the high school and elementary school is emphasized by John Lamb McIntyre's article, "The School and the Child as a Person" (131:194*ff.*).

Although it is true that the home is the "real world" of childhood, it is equally true that the school will do more than any other agency to shape an adolescent's growth and development.

The school determines what informations a child will possess as his "framework" for living. It determines most of the skills with which he will be equipped for vocational and leisure-time activities as an adult. It helps to determine his emotional activities as an adult. It helps to determine his emotional "set" and stabilities, his patterns of thought and action in community life. More than any other influence, it determines his evaluation of himself, both as an individual and in his relation to others.

The school's assay of the adolescent's abilities, his successes or failures, his acceptability or rejection as a citizen and a personality, is a final authority from which he has no true appeal. The evaluation the school makes of him, and the treatment his teachers accord him, is reflected to his home and throughout his community: it determines his relations with others in his own age group; it modifies tremendously his relation with his parents and family; through permanent records, it follows him when he applies for a job, or when he goes into the armed services.

For these reasons, teachers and administrators of professional calibre are constantly questioning both their present procedure and their actual influence on the child as a person. . . .

Again and again, the sole source of trouble, originally, proves to be the school's failure to meet the child as a responsible person. For a school which makes no provision for adequate counseling, for the development of individual initiative in the classroom or democratic respect for the individual child socially, is not likely to concern itself with "individual differences" in scholastic abilities; often enough, such a school prides itself on its own disregard of such matters.

Such schools classify their pupils by "group intelligence tests" or some "placement test," and then proceed to give the same course-content to all groups, "watering down" the materials as one descends the scale of supposed capabilities.

The "transfer of learning" theory, like the idea of "discipline subjects," was a gross superstition half a century ago. And we have known for almost that length of time, the actual percentage of information graduates can recall is so small as to be non-existent—unless the materials had meaningfulness in the youngster's own life when he learned them, and found practical use afterward.

The key does not lie in a course of required reading, whether of "Great Books" or "small." Nor does it lie in the radicalisms of the so-called "Progressive Education," or the platitudinous palliatives of the Dewey-ites.

It lies, rather, in intelligent concern for the child as a responsible person; in bringing into the class room (through in-service training) the basic principles of

sound educational psychology and mental hygiene, and in realization that the measure of success is not a statistical assay of memorized subject matter, but intelligent analysis of acquired understandings, the ability to apply them successfully to new situations, and the personal development and well-being of the individual children.

McIntyre's remarks suggest the need to apply the personnel point of view to the classroom and curriculum as well as to provide special personnel services.

College Organization

The trend in organization of the college personnel program is discussed by John Dale Russell (193:14*ff.*).

Recognition of the distinctive nature of student personnel services has come relatively late in the evolution of the American college. As a result, the patterns for administering these services are by no means uniform. The trend seems to be in the direction of recognizing a single responsible head for the administration of all student personnel services. Frequently this officer is given the title "dean of students." He is usually immediately responsible to the president, and is coordinate with the other major officers of the college, such as the academic dean, and the business manager. An older plan of organization provides separate administration for student personnel services for men and women students under, respectively, a dean of men and a dean of women. Such an arrangement is usually accompanied by further decentralization of the services, the various functions being performed more or less independently by faculty members and other administrative officials who have responsibility only directly to the president. An intermediate stage between the completely decentralized administration of the services and the completely centralized plans provides for the setting up of a coordinating committee consisting of the responsible heads of the various services.

While a growing number of institutions of higher learning are establishing the position of dean of students, there is still considerable confusion regarding his role and the extent of his authority. Lloyd-Jones [6] describes the problems produced by the addition of competing specialists to the college staff, the bifurcation of the college personnel program into separate areas for men and women, and the laissez-faire period in the development of personnel services. In the midst of this kind of situation, she says, desperate college presidents appointed one person who was supposed to bring some order out of the chaos which had thus developed.

Few were sure exactly how the miracle would be wrought. Some regarded the office as a catch-all for peripheral college functions; others as

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[6] Lloyd-Jones, Esther, "Personnel Administration in Relation to Problems of Women," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 372.

the proper authority to relieve the administration of the unpleasant duty of dismissing the wayward student. As a result, the dean of students was invested with various responsibilities and little authority with which to discharge them.

The authority of the personnel administrator should be recognized by the board of regents and the administration. Such recognition would reinforce the authority which is delegated to him by the faculty and his staff and would make it possible for him to work on an equal footing with other deans and administrative officials.

On this subject, Robert Strozier, dean of students at the University of Chicago (222), states: "It is my opinion that this responsibility must be clearly defined by the highest ruling body of the institution. A correct definition will be preclusive of overlapping authority and function and will set for operation the over-all administrative machinery through which the basic philosophy of the institution will be properly interpreted and increasingly fulfilled." He believes that adequate understanding of the responsibility of the office to the total administration of the school relates to morale.

The educational responsibilities of the office are implied by Sutherland's statement, "Whoever heads student personnel work should be a member of the top administrative council of the college, consulted on problems ranging from classroom and dormitory design to curriculum." [7]

Qualifications of a Dean of Students. The scope of the student personnel program demands an able educator in the position of dean of students. His background should include training and experience in educational administration and a study of democratic and educational philosophy. He should know the techniques of counseling, test interpretation, and the principles of psychology and be trained in group leadership.

He is ultimately responsible for leadership in outlining procedures; clarifying the objectives of the total program; delegating responsibility and authority to the administrative officers on his staff; coordinating all personnel services, activities, and records; eliminating overlapping functions and defining duties; supervising the many parts of the program; maintaining communication between agencies; hiring capable, well-trained personnel people to carry on the various aspects of the program and establishing employment standards for the administrators under him; maintaining balance between the parts of the program and avoiding over-emphasis on one part; giving recognition for outstanding contributions by staff members and developing morale among his own staff; measuring

[7] Sutherland, Robert L., "Some Aspects of the Culture of a Campus," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work* (258), University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 353.

student opinion; maintaining favorable contacts with faculty members; promoting the evaluation of the results of the program; helping to plan the adviser-training program; encouraging professional development of the staff; and carrying out the wishes of his staff and the faculty.

He sets the pattern of mutual respect or authoritarianism among his staff. This is perhaps his most important responsibility.

The dean of students is the liaison officer between the student personnel staff and the administration. He represents the administration to the staff and presents their needs and opinions to the administration.

Keeping in Touch with Students. A common complaint among personnel administrators is that they lose touch with the students. Lloyd-Jones [8] draws attention to this tendency. The demands on the administrator tend to involve him in endless committee meetings, budgetary matters, reports, and emergencies. It may be possible for him to share some of these responsibilities with his staff to leave time for at least one regular contact with the student-faculty council, student legislative council, or other body which is composed of general representation and for occasional meetings with the interfraternity council, the independent students' association, panhellenic, etc. It might be added that such meetings should be positive contacts, made before a crisis arises in which the dean may appear as a punitive authority.

Perhaps the one most fruitful contact would be as instructor of the leadership class, which is presumably composed of leaders from many campus organizations. Conceivably, over a period of five or six semesters, as the enrollment changes, the instructor will become acquainted with an officer from almost every organization on the campus. If the enrollment is voluntary, his relationship to the class can be more permissive than if he asks to attend a meeting of another group. He sees them often enough and over a long enough period of time to work up a positive relationship. Through their discussions of leadership problems, he learns about the affairs which are important to students, not in the role of the expert or "top brass," but as a member of a group which is working things out together. The unity and cohesiveness of the group carry over into situations where the dean may need the support and understanding of a group in solving a campus problem. After positive contacts with a number of the members, the barriers of suspicion and hostility are down, and the way is cleared for action with a minimum of resistance from the students.

Committee Structure. The personnel staff should have a close relationship to faculty-student committees, particularly in a large school. There

[8] Lloyd-Jones, Esther, "Personnel Administration in Relation to the Problems of Women," in E. G. Williamson (ed.), *Trends in Student Personnel Work,* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1949, p. 374.

may be a discipline committee, a committee on reinstatement, student-faculty council on student affairs, a policy-making board for advising the director of the student union, an orientation committee, an apportionment board to allocate student-activity funds, and others.

The policy-making body for the faculty advisory system may be composed of faculty members representing each school or division of the school or college, together with the dean of administration or dean of the faculty, dean of students, the head of the counseling bureau, and student representatives. "The full utilization of students on policy-making and administrative committees" was recommended by a group of educators at the National Conference on Higher Education in Chicago in April, 1949 (155).

Areas of Service. Areas of service under the dean of students may be classified as the counseling bureau (including testing service), faculty advising program, help for failing and near-failing students, registration and admissions, maintaining student records, student health service, housing, orientation of new students, student activities and recreation, development of student leaders, student government, group therapy, discipline, counselor training, placement, student employment, loans and scholarships, speech clinic, remedial reading and remedial English, occupational information, personnel research, tutoring of the blind and disabled, and advising of foreign students. John Dale Russell (198:14*ff.*) lists ten of the foregoing services as parts of the personnel system. A further breakdown, used in some schools, differentiates between vocational guidance and counseling of emotional and social problems. Leadership for hall counselors and house mothers is a part of the program. Self-government in dormitories and campus housing of married students would be included as well as attention to off-campus housing. Some personnel workers disagree as to whether discipline should be a part of the personnel program. It would seem a logical plan of organization, providing discipline is defined in the larger sense to include the positive concept of morale. A group of educators at the National Conference on Higher Education in 1949 suggested that "disciplinary functions should be vested in the personnel officer" (155).

General Plan of Organization. The foregoing enumeration suggests a personnel program of elaborate scope. Some universities have been organized to divide the total operation roughly into three parts: (1) the academic offering, including research and extension service; (2) business management; and (3) the personnel program. In this case, all the student's activities outside the classroom, with the exception of payment of his fees and bills, are coordinated in the personnel program.

Such a plan of organization is illustrated in Fig. 10.
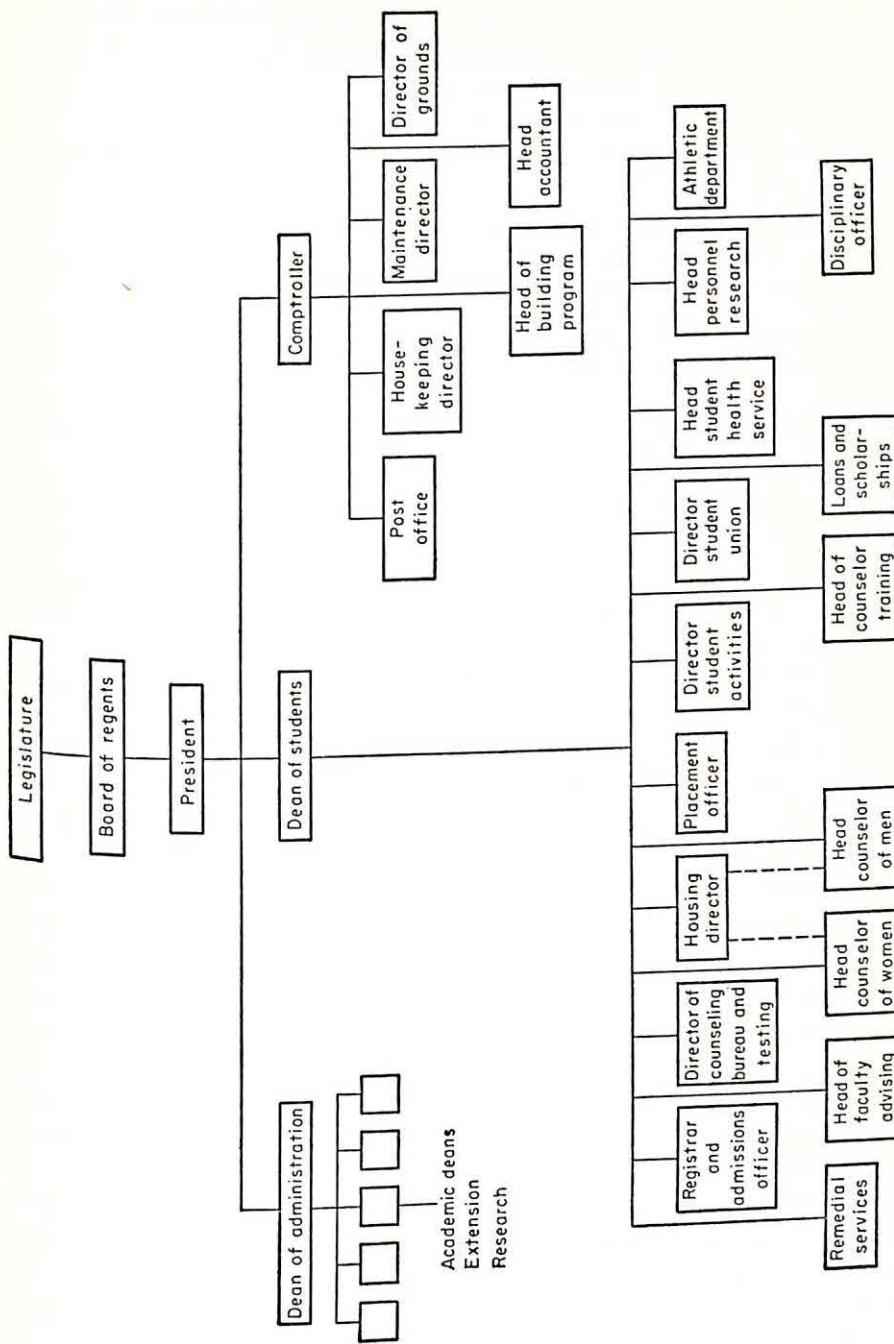
Fig. 10. Division of administrative responsibility in state college or university. This chart does not show the lines of communication which must exist between phases of the program if the best results are to be obtained.

General areas of service under the dean of students are listed in the statutes of the University of Chicago, which provide that there shall be a Dean of Students and that

. . . under the supervision of the President, he coordinates the University's relations with students, including admissions, recording and reporting, health service, the educational and social supervision of residence halls and clubhouses, the direction of social affairs, the control of student organizations and publications, vocational guidance and placement, student aid, the administration of fellowships and scholarships and the student advisory service. He is *ex-officio* vice-chairman of all boards and committees dealing with student relations and *ex-officio* member of all committees on the curriculum of the College and the Divisions.

A bulletin from the Boulder Division of the University of Colorado lists the following offices as part of or coordinating with the personnel program: dean of students, director of student activity center, deans of men and women, director of counseling, director of veterans affairs, placement bureau, student employment office, director of admissions and chairman of the scholarship committee, speech clinic, department of testing and evaluation, and student health service (which includes on its staff a psychiatrist and psychiatric social worker). Mention is also made of remedial reading, loans, and assistance with study habits.

Variations in Organization. Of course, the plan varies with almost every institution. In some, all the above-named services are included in the personnel system except the health service. In others, the admissions officer and registrar may be directly responsible to the president. Another variation is to have the placement officer, head of loans and scholarships, personnel research director, and head of counselor training on the counseling bureau staff. Counseling bureau services may include remedial reading and assistance to the speech and English departments in their remedial programs.

In some cases the dean of men and dean of women (or head hall counselors) are responsible to the housing director. This works *if the housing director is personnel-trained and interested in the educational aspects of housing.* In many colleges the offices of these two deans have been eliminated. The concept of their roles has changed from that of a custodial function to one of counseling and education. Elected chairmen from the residence-hall counselors may take the places of the two deans, or the work may be done by the director of housing.

In some cases the director of student activities may also be the director of the student union, or the union director could be on the staff of the activities director.

The responsibilities of various personnel staff members at Kansas State

College were defined in the following manner in 1950. Some of the responsibilities were assumed voluntarily by individuals who found that certain services were needed or who wished to pursue personal interests. The plan of organization shows how services were distributed according to the interests and abilities of the various staff members. Committees served advisory, policy-making, research, and legislative functions. Staff members were responsible to the dean of students.

Dean of Students

1. Stimulation, development, and coordination of all extracurricular activities
2. Supervision and development of student services
3. Development of democratic practice and participation in extracurricular activities
4. Representation of college in relations with extracurricular groups (information on resources, college policy, etc.)
5. Chairman and resource adviser of faculty council on student affairs (board of review for student affairs)
6. Development of coordinated record center (health, grade, test, and counseling records)
7. Adviser to student council and student legislative council (Student Planning Committee)
8. Responsibility for emergency discipline problems
9. Member of Council of Deans
10. Instructor of class in democratic leadership
11. In-service training program for house mothers and residence-hall counselors
12. Editing and coordinating reports of various personnel agencies
13. Representing administration to staff and staff to administration
14. Leadership in evaluation of personnel services
15. Liaison relationship with admissions, registrar, health service, and housing director
16. Leadership in developing government and educational program in residence halls and relating them to over-all program
17. Budgetary responsibility
18. Conducting leadership workshops for college students and high schools in vicinity
19. Contacts with faculty
20. Member of Apportionment Board (student-activity funds)
21. Member of Committee on Reorganization of College

Faculty Council on Student Affairs and Student Council

Review and recommend policies relating to student affairs, chartering new organizations, discipline problems, student interest and welfare, violations and penalties, public relations, school spirit, and the like. Legislation could originate in either body and be referred to the other. Joint meetings were sometimes held.

These two bodies also performed judicial functions. Subcommittees were Organization and Control Board, Social-Recreation Committee, and others. Fraternity and sorority advisers were responsible to Faculty Council.

Student Planning Conference

Subcommittee of student council, composed of representatives of students, faculty, and administration: research and recommendations on campus problems and improvements.

Orientation Committee

A student-faculty committee to establish policies and recommend plans regarding orientation of new students. Head of Counseling Bureau was a member.

Board of Counselors

Composed of assistant deans of academic schools and personnel staff members: to make policy regarding the faculty-advising program, referrals, general counseling program.

Dean of Women

Responsible for women's advisement (supplemented by Counseling Bureau and faculty advising); social calendar; executing policies on women's housing and sororities, approving appointment of house mothers and hall counselors, furnishing and decorating residence halls, women's employment, assistance with in-service training of staff and hall government programs. On her staff were the residence-hall counselors and their chairman, the panhellenic adviser, assistant to the dean of women.

Counseling Bureau

DIRECTOR

1. Administration and coordination of bureau services
2. Supervision of graduate student clinical laboratory work
3. In-service training of personnel staff
4. Direction of personnel research on student needs, goals, abilities, and attitudes and on evaluation of bureau services and other services, on nature of student population, selection and placement of students, teaching methods, etc.; item analysis of tests for other departments; development of new tests and measures
5. Teaching in education and psychology department (courses related to personnel work)
6. Men's adviser (men's residence-hall counselors responsible to director of Counseling Bureau)
7. Coordination and revision of testing and counseling records
8. Administration of orientation program for new students
9. Coordination of personal, emotional, social, educational, and vocational counseling services

10. Supervision of pre- and post-registration testing
11. Aid in selection of graduate students for placement and in screening students for entrance in specialized curricula, scholarships, etc. (assistance by staff)
12. Summer workshop for Kansas teachers (personnel methods)
13. Provision of local test norms
14. Direction of How-to-study and Human Relations clinics
15. Technical advice to other departments and outside agencies
16. Counseling
17. Counseling Bureau budget
18. Member of Reinstatement Committee
19. Chairman of Board of Counselors

HEAD OF ADVISING PROGRAM (responsible to Director of Counseling Bureau)

1. Leadership for faculty advisers: in-service training, test interpretation, individual conferences with advisers, evaluation
2. Resource consultant for faculty and outside agencies on group discussion methods
3. Counseling
4. Teaching
5. Consultant on group processes for community and regional organizations

THERAPIST (responsible to Director of Counseling Bureau)

1. Psychotherapist and psychodiagnostician for college and outside agencies
2. Group therapy
3. Counseling of serious cases
4. Resource consultant on projective techniques and other diagnostic instruments
5. Teaching
6. Research
7. Services to community agencies: social welfare, mental hygiene association, etc.

SPECIAL SERVICE COUNSELOR (responsible to Director of Counseling Bureau)

1. Remedial reading and other remedial services and evaluation of these services
2. Foreign students' adviser
3. Vocational guidance
4. Scholarships information and qualifying examinations
5. Occupational information, job evaluation
6. Counseling
7. Teaching
8. Assistance during orientation testing

RESEARCH ASSISTANT (responsible to Director of Counseling Bureau)

1. Responsibility for carrying on research
2. Direction of scoring and recording data

3. Issuing individual case folders to advisers and others, keeping information on their location, lists of faculty advisers and their advisees

4. Details of orientation: room assignments, scheduling, advisers' meeting with freshmen, scoring schedule, issuing printed information to freshmen, recruiting and training upper-class students to assist with orientation, etc.

PSYCHOMETRIST

Administration and scoring of group and individual tests

Many responsibilities designated as belonging to one member were shared by several staff members, with leadership by one.

Director of Temporary Student Union

1. Responsibility for social program of Student Union and for financial aspects
2. Sponsor of social-recreation committee
3. Direction of visitors' guide service
4. Research on social needs of students
5. Sponsor of freshman leadership program
6. Teaching

YMCA and YWCA

1. Study groups on religious, political, interracial, and government problems
2. Social events
3. Community service and service to college
4. Counseling
5. Coordination of religious activities
6. Student employment

The following officers constituted the Student Personnel Organization, which met as a committee on problems of coordination and those affecting the total personnel program: Dean of Students, Dean of Women, Director of Counseling Bureau, Director of Student Union, Chairman of Women's Housing, YWCA and YMCA secretaries. The Housing Director, who was responsible chiefly for housekeeping arrangements, repairs, housing records, and the like, met occasionally with the Student Personnel Organization.

The program as outlined does not necessarily constitute a recommendation, but it does illustrate how services were distributed according to the talents of the staff members, and it represents a wide variety of services to students. There is some overlapping of functions, but there is also evidence of progress toward coordination. Because of the broad training and experience of counselors, there is a tendency to place heavy responsibilities on them.

In the large university, each school or college may have its own dean of students, in addition to the staff of the over-all program.

The complexities of a personnel organization in a large university can

be illustrated by Fig. 11, which outlines the structure of Chicago University's personnel program.

Responsibilities of various staff members are explained by Strozier (222):

CENTRAL ADMINISTRATION

DEAN OF STUDENTS IN THE UNIVERSITY

DEANS OF STUDENTS
In the college
In the divisions
In the schools

ACADEMIC DEANS

Assistant dean of students

Adviser to foreign students
Auditor: Student organizations
Counseling center
Dramatics and radio midway
Physical education – men
Physical education – women

Pre-fab program
Social program
Student clubhouses
Student forum
Student health service
Student organizations
Residence hall program

Assistant dean of students

Entrance counseling and promotion
Office of admissions
Office of the registrar

Official publication, space assignments and dissertation secretary
Scholarships and fellowships office

Assistant dean of students

Office of adviser to veterans
Office of veteran's affairs
Office of vocational guidance and placement

Office of test administration
Testing and counseling service

General secretary
Assistant to the dean of students

Fig. 11. Administrative organization of the office of the dean of students. (*From a paper by Robert M. Strozier, 222.*)

1. Academic counsel and supervision is the responsibility of deans of students and the several academic units of the school. (They are usually members of the faculty and spend the greater portion of their time in teaching and research but serve a liaison function between the academic deans and the dean of students of the university.)

2. Activities, special interests, and special services, such as counsel to foreign students and health service, provide the province for an assistant dean of students.

3. Entrance counseling, admissions, records and reports, and scholarships and

fellowships form a natural grouping under the supervision of another assistant dean.

4. Vocational guidance and placement, veterans' affairs, and testing and vocational counseling service fall to the direction of another assistant dean.

Counseling Bureau

The dean of students is likely to lean heavily on the director of the counseling bureau for help in choosing staff members; training advisers, residence-hall counselors, and clinicians; furnishing information to other personnel officers and faculty members; directing the testing program and planning and administering the freshman orientation program with the help of the orientation committee; directing research; and assisting the departments of psychology and education to outline the counselor-training program for graduate students.

The placement, student employment, loans and scholarships, occupational library, group therapy, remedial reading, and all special services might be rendered by the counseling bureau staff as previously described. Sometimes each counselor is assigned one of these services to perform in addition to his counseling duties. This type of organization is illustrated in Fig. 12.
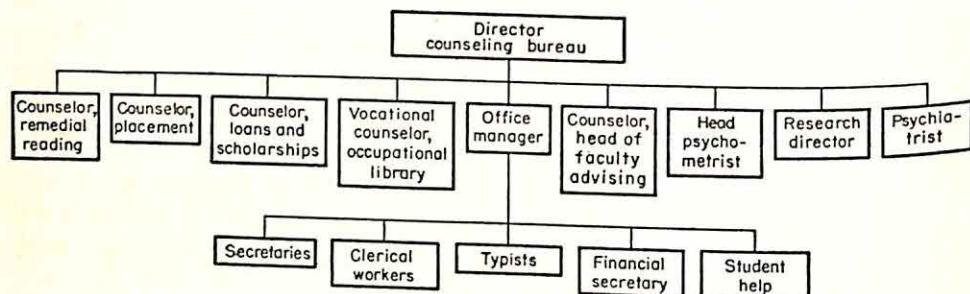
Fig. 12. Internal organization of counseling bureau or student personnel service center.

If the responsibilities of counselors are expanded to include a variety of services, the title Student Personnel Service Center might be better than Counseling Bureau. A more inclusive title would indicate the nature of available services and, perhaps, help to dispel the belief that the services are for the maladjusted only. Duties in addition to counseling would be expected to reduce the counseling load of each counselor.

In some bureaus, the occupational library is operated by a secretary or clerical worker. Much of the work of placement and student employment could be handled in this fashion with supervision by a counselor or the director of the bureau.

Teaching should be a part of the counselor's work. This would probably

be beneficial to the counselor as well as to the department. The authors believe that the counselor who has daily practice in counseling and direct contact with a variety of student problems can bring to his classes the live illustrations which make the contact meaningful to the students. He remains alert to the problems of the profession as a whole and relates his findings in the bureau to classroom work. He maintains contacts with students outside the counseling interview, and with faculty members.

Some adjustment should be made to relieve the counselor of part of his clinical load if he teaches a class. The teaching of one class a semester is estimated to be equivalent to about one-fifth to one-fourth of a counseling load, depending somewhat on the number of students in class. The counselor should have a rank equivalent to that of instructor or better, depending on his training, experience, and length of tenure, according to the recommendation of Group Five of the National Conference on Higher Education in 1949 (155).

Other variations in organization include specialists in marriage counseling, financial counseling, and religious counseling. A state-wide testing service for high schools and counseling and advisory services for state and community organizations are sometimes performed by college testing and counseling bureaus.

Figure 13 shows the nature of services offered by counseling agencies in seven Middle Western colleges and universities.

Some of the services listed in Fig. 13 were offered in some of the colleges as part of the student personnel program, but not by members of the counseling staff. Some of the services were attached to the office of the dean of students or to such departments as education, psychology, health department, etc. In some, their services were coordinated with those of the counseling agency; in others, they operated as competing agencies with resulting duplication of records and services.

All colleges except number VII maintained additional separate agencies where counseling was done by psychiatrists, clinical psychologists, psychiatric social workers, personality clinics, and others. Number VI maintained an independent testing agency. Colleges I, II, and V charged fees for public services. Number I provided a full-time person in its occupational library, spending $1,000 for materials in one year. Testing, scoring, item analyses, standardizing and validating tests, and statistical services to other departments of the college were performed in some of the colleges by statistical laboratories which operated independently or in coordination with the counseling agencies.

Number VII maintained more services which related the counseling services to the total college program, but placed a heavy burden on the counseling bureau staff. The advantages of organization number VII are:

contacts of professional counselors with faculty members, other staff members, and students other than clients are increased; the counseling program is integrated into the over-all college program instead of remaining a

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII
1. Educational, Vocational and Personal Counseling	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
2. Orientation and Guidance Testing	+	+	+	+	+		+
3. Remedial Services, Reading, Study, etc.						+	+
4. Occupational Information	+						+
5. Training Faculty Advisers							+
6. Public Services	+	+			+		+
7. Foreign Student Advising							+
8. Advising Candidates for Scholarships							+
9. Evaluation and Research				+			+
10. Testing, Scoring, Item Analysis, Services to Other Departments							+
11. Teaching Own Field	+	+	+	+	+	+	
12. Supervised Counseling Practice	+	+	+	+	+	+	
13. Other Teaching							+
14. Dormitory Supervision (Men)							+
15. Training All Dormitory Counselors and Housemothers							+
16. Case Load (Total for Bureau)	800-1100		1100-1400	1200-1500	700-900		1200-1500
17. BUDGET	$50,000	$37,600	$33,800	$31,250	$30,000	$29,860	$29,620

FIG. 13. A comparison of services offered by counseling bureaus or counseling agencies in seven Middle Western colleges and universities, 1950–1951. (Case loads not available for all bureaus.) (*From an unpublished study by Robert S. Wilson, formerly of the Kansas State College counseling bureau staff.*)

peripheral service; faculty members, administrators, and others become acquainted with personnel methods which can be applied to the classroom, group leadership, and interpersonal relations; faculty members and others learn what personnel services are available to them; remedial and special services are given by trained personnel workers.

The principal weaknesses of number VII are the lack of budgetary recognition for special services provided by counselors and the absence of a professional training program for graduate students. Aside from the obligation to meet the increasing demand for trained personnel workers, the college fails to make use of graduate students to assist with the work of the bureau. Thus, heavy responsibilities are placed on the bureau without compensating appropriations or provision for student interns to relieve the staff of part of the work.

Graduate students who are working toward advanced degrees in student personnel work often intern in the counseling bureau and in other personnel offices. Preliminary interviewing, the preparation of case folders, writing of case summaries, supervised counseling, occupational library service, vocational guidance, and assistance with remedial services are among those duties which they might perform. They would be included in staff conferences.

Counselors sometimes specialize in vocational guidance, psychotherapy, group dynamics, or child guidance, and some prefer their case loads to include a variety of problems. Individual tests such as the Thematic Apperception Test (152) and the Rorschach (193) are sometimes administered by counselors instead of psychometrists.

Some bureaus employ staff members to render special services so as to permit counselors to devote all their time to counseling. Figure 14 illustrates another type of organization.
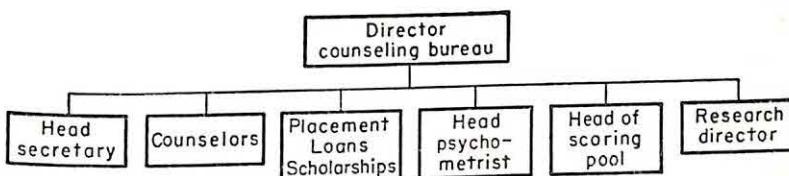
Fig. 14. Internal organization of counseling bureau or student personnel service center.

In addition to counselors, the bureau staff usually includes one or more psychometrists, machine test scorers, an office manager, and one or more secretaries. One secretary may be assigned to the director for administrative correspondence and another to counselors for taking dictation. Some offices use the dictaphone; in this case, the organization may be a little different. Receptionist duties may be assigned to one secretary or they may be shared by several of the clerical staff. An office manager is usually needed to organize the clerical work of the office, order supplies, arrange contacts between advisers and advisees, and distribute information to the advisers. She may be in charge of advising records and student employees in the bureau. She checks the records out and in, library fash-

ion. In institutions where assistant deans are heads of advising in their respective academic schools, she works with them on routine problems relating to advising. This setup works well if the assistant deans are personnel-trained people.

The financial records and bookkeeping of the office are sometimes the responsibilities of the office manager. In other cases they are assigned to one of the secretaries or a special employee. Vacation and sick-leave records and requisitions, assistance in preparing the budget, etc., would be among the duties of the financial secretary.

The counselors' secretaries prepare the folders for the day's work, checking to see that all information is present and all tests are scored and recorded accurately. They record the name of each counselee and the date counseled for evaluation or research purposes.

If the secretaries and psychometrists, as well as counselors, attend at least part of the weekly staff meetings, they learn personnel concepts and become integrated into the program. The practice of choosing office help for a welfare-uplift pattern of interests, as well as an interest in and aptitude for clerical work, pays off in staff cooperation and harmony. Clerical workers on the staff often have valuable contributions to offer regarding the treatment of general problems of the bureau. Separate meetings of counselors might be held to discuss strictly clinical problems.

Relationship to Other Offices. The counseling bureau may function as the chief source of information, or clearinghouse for information, about students, furnishing test results and other data to residence-hall counselors, health service staff, faculty advisers, disciplinary committee or officer, reinstatement committee, placement officer, scholarship committee or officer, etc. Referrals to the bureau are made by the above mentioned agencies and by faculty members and administration. (Students are also encouraged to enter the bureau voluntarily.)

Processing the Student. The student who seeks help in the bureau first makes an appointment for a preliminary interview. Some agencies employ one or more staff members with minimum professional training for preliminary interviews only. In others each counselor interviews his own clients. The advantages of the latter arrangement are that the counselor begins to establish rapport in the first contact. He gets clues in the first interview that help him with counseling. He checks the test data and decides whether further testing is indicated.

The counselee returns to the counseling bureau for counseling one or more times, depending on his needs and desires and the judgment of the counselor. If referral seems indicated, the counselor makes recommendations as to where special help can be found.

Records

A centralized record system facilitates the work of the personnel program and gives service to faculty and administration. A cumulative record folder containing test results, high school grades and rank in class, health data, and college classes and grades should be filed in a centralized place for each college student. If constructed of cardboard of good quality, the folder can be used to enclose counselor's and adviser's notes, correspondence, and information of a less permanent nature.

Lloyd-Jones and Smith (119) caution that materials of a confidential nature should be kept in a separate locked file for the use of professional counselors. Only a small percentage of the total student body would need this special protection.

The American Council on Education Study on Student Personnel Work in the Postwar College (10:87) has this to say concerning records:

Personnel data about students should be readily accessible and readily exchanged from one department to another. This does not mean that confidential and intimate data are distributed indiscriminately. It does mean an effective system of central record keeping or a system of record exchange which will permit prompt assembly of case data.

The use of the centralized records by faculty advisers, administrators, and admissions officers implies that these members would be trained in the use of the data and the interpretation of test results.
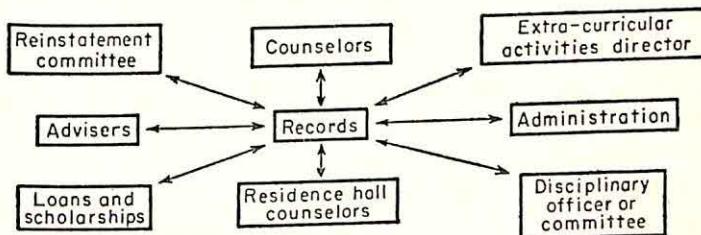
Fig. 15. Relationship of centralized records to student personnel services.

Records are more likely to be used if related offices are located near the records room. The counseling bureau, admissions officer, registrar, placement office, and men's and women's counselors should have ready access to the recorded data. Duplication of records by the International Business Machines punch card would make the standard data on each student available in quantities. (In 1950, the Kansas State College Counseling Bureau recorded essential test information, high school records, etc., on McBee Keysort Cards which were kept in the bureau in order that the students'

individual record folders could be kept by the advisers.) The flow of information to and from the records is illustrated by Fig. 15.

Advantages of adequate centralized records are emphasized by Strozier (222):

Decisions, all the way from dismissal and probation cases down to the simple request of a student to drop a course, require perspective. The man who makes the decision cannot rely solely on subjective impressions—either his own or those of others.

This problem of grounding decisions upon evidence and of achieving decisional perspective can be solved by setting up a cumulative case file for each student. In our institution, the application form is really a folder of six to eight pages. This application with all correspondence about admissions—letters of recommendation, transcripts, evaluation of previous performance and records—and, if the applicant comes to us in person, an evaluation report on the interview by the Entrance Counselor, form together the nucleus of the permanent record on each student. After the file is processed by the admissions office, but before the student matriculates, it is catalogued for permanent filing. When a student matriculates, his "case" (as we call this file) is signed out on loan by the permanent records office to the Dean of Students in the College, Division or School which the student enters. Into this case go all written reports, however fragmentary and informal, which pertain to the student's performance and activities, except the official record of grades kept by the Registrar. [He adds that photostats of academic records are included. Also mentioned are adviser's reports on academic interviews, records of financial irregularities, reports from residence halls, and health service.]

Thus when a student comes into my office with a problem, which I cannot handle adequately merely from a perspective the office interview might yield, I have immediate access to the case.

Admissions as a Part of the Personnel Program

The admissions officer of the college informs prospective students about the offerings and advantages of the college. In private colleges, he has considerable powers of selection and has the opportunity to make effective use of clinical data in arriving at a decision regarding the admission of students.

The admissions officer in most state institutions is virtually obliged to admit any freshman residing in the state who wants to attend the college, providing he has the required high school credits. If the high school records and test results predict failure for the student, he can send the parents an informative letter or he can refer the student and his parents to the counseling bureau or the dean of students. If the student insists, he must admit him.

In admitting transfer students, he is empowered to use more discrimination. He can reject an unpromising candidate or ask the help of the counseling bureau in predicting his success in college.

One of the major universities in the United States provides a general college for freshmen who are rejected by the professional colleges. If the students survive two years, they can then be admitted to more exacting curricula. In such a situation, the admission officer would play a more important role than in most institutions. He would need training in evaluating test data, the high school record, and personality measurement and admissions forms. He should work closely with the counseling bureau.

Admissions is properly a part of the personnel program. The process of admissions is described in the American Council on Education Study, *The Student Personnel Point of View* (9:11), as "a first step in the counseling procedure designed to interpret the institution to the student, his family, and his high school teachers in terms of its requirements for success, its services, and its ability to satisfy his educational and personal needs."

The ratings of high school principals appear to be exceedingly helpful in predicting behavior of students (275). Because home adjustment is such an important factor in the behavior of students (276), the admissions officer would do well to secure some information on home conditions.

Channeling Students

The use of special services by students in trouble is more nearly ensured by administrative arrangements. If student-faculty advisory committees agree, administrators might arrange for marginal and failing students and disciplinary cases to be routed to counselors before a final decision is made. The counselors would be able to help many students to overcome their handicaps and to give to the committee, board of review, or whatever final authority is provided information to help them understand the student and to predict success of treatment.

Strozier (222) says that cases which involve dismissal from school should be routed to the dean of students. If probationary action is taken by deans of students of academic units or by other officers, he recommends that the dean of students be notified. If the student fails to meet the terms of his probation, he is then sent, with a recommendation for dismissal, to the dean of students.

Discipline cases might be instructed to go regularly to a counselor until improvement is reported by the counselor to the committee or official making the referral or until it becomes obvious that the student cannot make use of his opportunities.

The problem of failing students and marginal achievers is so prevalent that some colleges have adopted a plan for special treatment of their problem. Students who are uncertain as to educational objectives following a period of registration in specific curricula are sometimes included in the plan.

Division of Intermediate Registration. The arrangement for giving such students individual attention is sometimes called the division of intermediate registration. Students are automatically enrolled in the division at the end of their first, second, or third semester whenever their grade averages fall below a given level, providing they give evidence of being good candidates for remedial treatment and are recommended by their deans and the director of the division. The student remains in the division not longer than two semesters. If he maintains a reasonable grade average during the time he is enrolled there, he may apply for admission to a specified curriculum to work toward a degree. The director of the division of intermediate registration then makes a recommendation regarding the student's prognosis, and the dean of the school to which the student has applied can admit or refuse the candidate.

Procedures in the division of intermediate registration would include aptitude, interest, and personality testing followed by counseling. A reading test and evaluation of the student's study habits would also be included. The tests and other data are used to discover the student's deficiencies, indicate courses in which he might succeed, and diagnose possible emotional problems.

The number of hours to be carried is commonly limited and the courses are prescribed by the director of the division or some member of his staff and others concerned with the program of the particular student.

Students may be required while in the division to carry a few remedial courses in English, mathematics, remedial reading, etc., without credit. However, most courses in the division normally carry college credit, but they may not necessarily apply to a degree. The staff makes an effort to arrange for the student to take work toward a degree, but it is not always possible. Thus it may require a longer than usual time for the student to complete requirements for a degree. Student activities are pursued as usual except when the director and his staff decide that limitations should be imposed.

The liaison body between the division of intermediate registration and the academic staff can be a committee of students and representative faculty members from each school.

In addition to the types of problem students listed above, who are automatically enrolled in the division of intermediate registration, other students who might benefit by enrollment there might be those with a low

scholastic average who wish to transfer from one school to another within the college.

Pennsylvania State College is among those institutions employing a division of intermediate registration. It was approved by the executive committee of the Board of Trustees in April, 1948, in accord with the suggestions of the council of administration of the college. The report of the council outlined the reasons for its recommendations as follows (167):

"1. Each case of student maladjustment requires individual treatment according to needs;

"2. The student in accepting the privileges of admission has an obligation to make the most of his opportunities;

"3. The college in granting admission to a student has an obligation to provide the best possible means of correcting student maladjustment because the college itself will often be found contributory to the troublesome situations;

"4. Problems of student maladjustment have far reaching family and social connections involving the general welfare and public relationships."

The council recommended that the student be made to feel his enrollment in the division of intermediate registration is an opportunity and not a punishment.

Bogue (28:418) reports a program for deficient students in New London Connecticut Junior College who need to review high school work before attempting a full college load.

Integrating the Health Service

Frequent conferences and a two-way referral system should operate between the health service and the counseling bureau in order that the staffs of both can see the student as a total being. The health officer should be invited to attend staff meetings, to describe his program and discuss mutual problems. He should be a member of such faculty committees as make decisions affecting his work.

Occasionally a student will be suspected of being psychotic. Sometimes a psychiatrist is a member of the student health staff or counseling bureau staff. Many institutions do not have complete facilities for treating psychotic cases, and if so, referral to an outside agency is indicated. Such cases should be screened by the counseling bureau and health service before a decision is made. The functioning of the health service as a part of the personnel program is described in the American Council on Education Study, *The Student Personnel Point of View* (9:7ff.), as follows:

It is not enough to conceive of a health service as an agency only for the treatment of illness in order to keep the student operating in the classroom at regular

maximum efficiency. To be broadly effective the health program should also aggressively promote a program of health education designed to equip each student with self-understanding and self-acceptance at his optimum personal level of physical competence. The adjustment of the individual to his physical potentialities as well as to his irremediable limitations is a basic element in his full development of personality.

A further comment on the relationship of the health service to the total personnel program might be that the physician can help the counselor to regard the student as a total being and, conversely, the counselor can help the physician to be aware of the relationship between mental and physical well-being.

One advantage to having the health service operate as a part of the personnel program is that mechanics of operation can be improved. For example, a college health service which functioned independently of the personnel setup habitually scheduled freshmen physical examinations to conflict with testing. Dozens of retests had to be given for students who had missed various group tests to meet their appointments in the health service. Thus the psychometrists and counselors, as well as students, were inconvenienced, the test recording delayed, and research hampered because conditions were not the same for all students tested. Machine scoring was complicated on account of having to wait for a few straggling tests to be put through before changing keys. In a coordinated program these conflicts could be eliminated.

In another institution, the health service staff was in the habit of referring students to outside counseling agencies without clearance by the counseling staff. Students who might have been served without charge on the campus were sent to private practitioners. In some cases, testing and counseling records for severely disturbed students who were referred outside the college could have been of help to the psychiatrist.

When a psychiatrist is a member of the health service staff, a centralized program encourages communication and articulation between him and the counseling bureau, eliminates duplication of effort, and promotes efficient use of facilities and staff.

Recent publications in this area are *Fostering Mental Health in Our Schools,* published in 1950 by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; and *Health Counseling,* by M. Schwebel and E. F. Harris, published in 1951 by Chartwell House.

Evaluation

Leadership in evaluating the student personnel program should come from student personnel administrators, but all staff members should be involved. Progress toward both immediate and long-term goals should be

evaluated. Outcomes should be compared with objectives. Evaluation is a continuous process.

Procedures for evaluation are suggested in Chapters 1, 10, 11, and 12. Among those which have proved valuable are surveys of student and faculty opinion; interviews with faculty members, administrators, and students; testing and retesting with personality and attitudes inventories as well as with achievement tests and other standardized tests; studies of retention, failing students, classroom grades, disciplinary cases, changes from one curriculum to another, placement, number of students counseled, tested, and otherwise served; extent and quality of student participation in government and all-school activities, advisee-adviser contacts, number of referrals to personnel workers, use of test results by faculty advisers, quality of advisers' interview notes, use of centralized records by faculty members, administrators, committees, and hall counselors; comparison of the services of a given school or college with those of similar institutions; follow-up on graduates; wire and tape recordings to help evaluate counseling skills of counselors, advisers, and trainees. Informal comments of faculty members and students showing understanding of the program, approval, or dissatisfaction are also of value.

These criteria for evaluation are suggested:

1. Extent to which student personnel services are used by students, faculty, and administration
2. Quality of cooperation among student personnel staff members and between staff members and faculty and administration
3. Balance in the student personnel program
4. Growth and development of the program
5. Professional growth of staff members, status, training, and local and national recognition
6. Benefits to the institution and to individuals, as indicated by studies of retention, achievement, personal growth, etc.

Summary

Advantages of a Coordinated Student Personnel Program. The coordinated program has many advantages over scattered services. Overlapping functions can be eliminated. Each item of information need be gathered only once. Less energy is spent in competition between rival agencies. Centralized records can be easily located by those who need them. The same information which is useful to the counselor and adviser can also be used by the reinstatement committee, the placement officer, or the director of research. The most efficient use can be made of professional as well as clerical help. All services of the college can be brought to bear on the problems of the individual student.

Automatic routing of complaints, disciplinary problems, and other problems to various student personnel offices relieves the offices of top administration of many petty and harassing details. Definition of authority and responsibility and mutual agreement between staff members reduce friction and competition.

At least one person views the college community as a whole and tries to develop unity in the program. Personnel concepts can be extended to the operation of residence halls and other parts of the college program. Extra-class life can be made to contribute to educational objectives. When an all-school project is undertaken, a unified program makes possible the coordination of all school organizations. The integrated program operates from an over-all philosophy. When all staff members are working together toward the same set of objectives, morale and efficiency are improved.

Coordination might begin with a study of the existing services and the needs of the school. Professional leadership is required for the operation of an effective coordinated program. Democratic methods of leadership are recommended for work with staff members and faculty. Planning for coordination should involve faculty members, students, administrators, and student personnel workers.

Provision should be made for exchange of personnel data and other information, for balancing the personnel staff, and for research. Records should be centralized. Authority should be equivalent to responsibility and they should be clearly defined. Financial arrangements should be made in the light of assigned responsibility.

The trend is toward centralizing responsibility for all phases of student life except academic and business aspects in the hands of one staff member. Staff members in charge of admissions, health service, housing, counseling, testing, remedial services, student leadership, and the like are responsible to him.

Interpersonal relations, attitudes, emotions, and personal security and status are involved in reorganizing the student personnel program and play as important a part in the process, if not more important, as lines of responsibility and authority and relevant information.

Administrative decisions regarding such matters as enrollment, scheduling, and routing of students affect the success of the program.

The organization should be flexible, in order to serve the needs of the institution and to make use of the talents and interests of individual staff members. Involving the clerical staff in the program can contribute to efficiency and to educational goals of the program.

Problems. Problems of the high school personnel administrator include integrating the services of the part-time specialist into the program, securing the cooperation of the principals of lower schools, and securing trained

personnel. Budgetary problems interfere with almost all programs, particularly that of the small school.

Among the problems of the college personnel administrator is that of keeping in touch with students.

Problems involved in either program may be elaborate committee structure, integrating previously offered services, communication between units and with the faculty, avoiding duplication of effort.

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terminology is used, personnel concepts being translated into simple language.

Written to include current philosophy and recent advances, the book treats the latest trends such as involving the faculty member in the program, group processes and therapy, coordinating non-academic services and centralizing authority and responsibility in a personnel administrator, extra-curriculum as educational experience, remedial services, and considering the student in the group social setting.

Presentation is made not only of therapeutic measures, but of preventative and positive ones as well. Philosophy, aims, and necessary conditions for learning are discussed and followed by a consideration of the kinds of skills, practices, procedures, and tools which will produce the desired results. Emphasis is placed on the paramount importance of behavior, attitudes, and habits in learning. Discipline receives a new treatment with stress upon positive aspects and factors, discussions of emotional factors in group thinking and action, the self-concept as a factor in behavior and self-discipline. Problems relating to fraternity-sorority activities are treated for the first time. Thorough treatment of orientation processes is provided. These are but a few of the excellent topics covered in this outstanding text.